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ABSTRACT

Institutional change in schools of education is discussed here with special regard for field-based teacher education programs and inservice education, both of which are viewed as potential growth areas in schools with declining enrollments. The first article deals with the challenge that inservice education offers, both in terms of growth opportunities and the demand for new skills from teacher educators. The reform of the teacher educator is the subject of the second article, which offers a grand design for collaborative problem solving. The third article examines the history of inservice practices, resources for field programs, field experiences and professional career development, planning for college participation, opportunities and potential pitfalls, and systematic planning and design. Organizational constraints to institutionalizing change in secondary schools and institutions of higher education is reviewed in the fourth article, and the fifth focuses on building readiness for change at the University of Oregon. The final article offers an organizational analysis of the involvement of universities in inservice education, stressing the economic, political, and sociological constraints involved. References are provided. (DS)

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The Institutionalization of Change and Inservice in Schools and Colleges of Education

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THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF
CHANGE AND INSERVICE
IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

Workshop of the
Far West Teacher Corps Network
Reno, Nevada -- May 1978

Edited by

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PREFACE

In May 1978, the Far West Teacher Corps Network conducted a regional workshop in Nevada for deans of schools and colleges of education, Teacher Corps directors, and other responsible personnel in higher education to examine problems associated with institutional change, particularly in higher education. The issues discussed in this document are based on the papers presented at that workshop.

A wide range of topics and views are set forth in this publication, representing several different colleges and universities. However, the common catalyst for institutional change which appears in all the papers is inservice education. Each author discusses institutional change vis-a-vis field-based programs and inservice education.

On behalf of the Board of Directors of the Far West Network, I would like to thank Haroldie Spriggs, Jim Steffensen, and William L. Smith from National Teacher Corps for their continued support. Also, the Board wishes to acknowledge the contributions of Karl Massanari and Lana Pipes from the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, who made this publication possible. Finally, the authors deserve praise for sharing their professionalism, which usually involves some risks.

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THE CHALLENGE OF INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE

Ronald G. Petrie

These are difficult times for schools of education, and for universities in general. We face decreasing student enrollments, an oversupply of teachers, new social demands, and declining funding. The challenges for universities today include the reallocation of resources and the rethinking and redefining of goals and the population to be served.

Since the end of World War II most colleges and universities have experienced tremendous growth. In the past 40 years we have never had to worry about where we were going, or why we were going there, because we couldn't keep up with the demand for our services. The system of packaging content into three-hour units of instruction and offering it in a campus setting served us well during those years: it was cost efficient and easy to handle administratively.

The time has come, however, for a fresh look and a rededication of our efforts. Because of the decline in birth rates during the sixties and seventies we are now in a period of no growth, or at best moderate growth. Schools of education all over the country are laying off staff, trying to hang on, and hoping for better days. But there is light at the end of the tunnel, and in fact considerable reason for optimism if we can identify markets which previously have been untapped and needs which have not been met. Schools of education can enter into a period of unheralded growth if we are willing, and able, to change.

Part of the problem is clarifying the issues and establishing a vocabulary to unscramble some of the concepts that need redefinition. The big market that is largely untapped is inservice education. But lest we get confused, we need to describe the different types of inservice education that exist and the relationship of inservice education to continued professional development.

Continued professional development implies degrees and certificates. Usually it takes place on campus and tends to be more theoretical than applied. This type of activity will continue because of the large investments in facilities and resources, and because it is what we do best.

Inservice for "lay-ons" is primarily training required by federal and state laws, usually as a result of social forces; PL 94-142 and minimum competencies for graduation are examples of such lay-ons. University faculties by and large are not as well prepared as onsite personnel to offer this type of inservice, which represents one of the largest potential fields of instruction.

Inservice for onsite improvement of instruction is training that teachers identify as necessary to improve their skills in teaching reading, writing, arithmetic, or whatever; or that administrators or supervisors see as needed by the school district. This is another facet of inservice education that the higher education faculty does not do very well, and in fact may not have the skills or the expertise to do without additional retraining.

To be effective in providing inservice to implement lay-ons and to improve onsite instruction at the classroom level, we must develop university level staff members who have some new skills. We need also to enlist the services of public school personnel as adjunct faculty to provide university course credit in the field, different from that offered as continued professional development. There is an urgent need to develop teacher educators who have as much skill in inservice education as they have in preservice education.

A NEW MODEL PROGRAM

The Teacher Corps Project at Portland State University in Oregon is a field-centered training complex designed to provide onsite instruction, inservice for lay-ons, continued professional development, and preservice. Project staff members have been working with a total school staff of teachers and administrators over a two-year period and have experimented and trained themselves, through trial and error, to be the type of higher education faculty needed for effective inservice training. We have developed a comprehensive, process-approach model that utilizes task forces of parents, teachers, administrators, Teacher Corps staff members, and students to identify and prioritize teachers' and students' needs. The needs assessment program development model utilizes a seven-step approach that begins with identifying educational goals and progresses through student needs assessment, identifying conditions for learning, conducting assessments of the conditions for learning, identifying teacher competencies, conducting assessments of teacher competencies, and developing, implementing, and evaluating teacher education programs. A complete description of the process and the needs assessment model is described in the publication, A Needs Assessment Model for Program Development in Teacher Education (1976).

The process approach to inservice training has shown that what teachers actually want and need is not what universities have offered them heretofore; furthermore, what they initially say they want is quite different from what teachers actually need once the process is completed. Two-thirds of what teachers need relates directly to specific day-to-day problems--two hours with a psychologist to discuss an emotionally disturbed child, or three hours of instruction in how to teach a particular reading skill, for example; they do not need a regular three-hour course on Tuesday night.

Most college faculty members do not know how to deliver the type of instruction being requested using the process-needs assessment model. Further, there is a growing need for college faculty to provide similar services to other school sites. In order to prepare more regular faculty members to deliver the needs assessment model and appropriate instruction to the schools, a series of presentations have been made to the School of Education faculty. Additional plans call for a workshop/retreat to develop the necessary skills utilizing simulation strategies. Finally, a group of faculty members have volunteered to work with the Teacher Corps team, on site, to develop their skills in the process approach. Some faculty members will be released from other responsibilities part time to develop the skills, and some will participate in the training on their own because of the ability to rearrange their schedules to be free during the times that the model is being applied in the public schools. The training program should produce approximately 15 regular faculty members who would be available as a cadre to serve the public schools.

Schools of education need to reassess their organization and function to accommodate onsite and lay-on inservice education. We must develop a cadre of staff members assigned part time--or full time--to providing onsite inservice instruction directly to teachers, or to training public school personnel to deliver the necessary content and skills. These faculty members must develop process skills as well as content knowledge. And they need to be out in the schools more than they are on campus.

Therein lies part of the problem: a program that is field centered, competency based, and process oriented does not fit the current university system. It may be necessary to institute differentiated staffing at the university level, or to modify the university to accept the new dimensions of serving the inservice needs of schools.

FOCUS ON INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE

A number of factors inhibit university change to more field-based inservice programs. First, the university reward system of promotion and tenure usually does not reward active involvement in field-based programs. The university tends to reward research and publications rather than field service. Field service is more time consuming, and field practitioners tend to do "applied" research as opposed to pure, empirically designed research. It would appear that faculty members involved in field-based programs need to do more empirical research than they have in the past; this is supported by the fact that little evidence of "hands-on" research is recorded in education. It also would appear that field-centered faculty members have some of the best opportunities to do this type of research. They need to reorient their thinking and put research at the top of their list of priorities. Universities, conversely, must recognize the worth of program development, curriculum development, and publication in a variety of media; the refereed journal is only one outlet.

There also is faculty resistance to field-based programs, partly because of the university reward system and partly because of insecurity among faculty members who don't know how to be really effective in the field. Further, we do not have any system or strategy for retraining of college faculty other than sabbatical leave--an ineffective tool for solving the problem.

Finally, of course, the problem of funding and finance is at the heart of any institutional change. Possible sources of funding are the university, public schools, the state, and federally funded teacher centers. An effective strategy for reorientation of faculty might include retreats; using Teacher Corps to help develop process skills with selected faculty members; and faculty exchanges. Important questions to consider are: Who should bring about the change? Who should retrain teachers at the university level? Teacher Corps Networks may be one viable vehicle.

Warner, Cooper, and Houston (1977) have identified 20 competencies that school-based educators need to be able to perform. If these competencies are valid, university staff members must demonstrate the competencies themselves, and must know how to train others to demonstrate these competencies in the field. In "A Missing Link in School Renewal: The Program and Staff Development Specialist," Howey and Willie (1977) noted the need for a different approach to solving retraining and renewal in institutions; and in the same issue of the Journal of Teacher Education Goddu, Crosby, and Massey (1977) described another process model developed in New England.

In summary, the need for institutional change is apparent. The market for inservice training of teachers is at least as big as any that we have previously addressed--and probably bigger. However, university faculty members will need to develop new skills in order to deliver instruction in a form and content different from current practices. The challenge to schools of education is to overcome institutional inertia and respond to the forces and the demands of the schools. If we can meet the challenge of institutional change, schools of education will rebound from our current dilemma stronger and more effective than we have ever been.

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THE REFORM OF THE TEACHER EDUCATOR, OR WHO WILL HELP ME CHANGE MY ROLE?

Herbert Hite

Professors of education may not be an endangered species--yet--but they certainly are a threatened species. The retrenchments in schools of education have removed many of the untenured, younger professors. Those who remain are older, averaging over 50 years of age nationally, and holding.

The very existence of schools of education is threatened. In the course of debate over the Higher Education Act of 1975, lobbyists for organized teachers came right out front with their contempt for educationists, and congressional staff members in some cases supported that view. They said that the nation doesn't need colleges of education; that the organized profession can do the same job better and more cheaply.

The teacher education establishment now justifies its existence on the basis of the need for (but not the delivery of) services to teachers on the job, rather than on preparing new teachers. Practicing teachers, however, do not seem to be clamoring for professors of education and their well-known expertise.

So, says the battered Professor, who will help me change my role?

Not I, says the Arts and Sciences colleague. You were pretty overbearing when most of my students were candidates for a teaching position. I will be glad to see you go.

Not I, says the Graduate Dean. You always were a lousy researcher.

Not I, says the State Legislator. You cost too much anyway.

Not I, says the Federal Bureaucrat. Congress has not authorized funds for retraining university personnel.

Not I, says the Teacher. You were useful only when you helped me meet some pretty questionable certification requirements, which I have now met. [Nearly 80 percent of practicing teachers have no further certification requirements.]

Then, says the Professor, in the best little red hen tradition, I will do it myself. I will retrain myself to become useful to those good people who are concerned with the improvement of schooling.

And there are people who are concerned with the improvement of schooling. Legislators and the media express great anxiety over declining student achievement in the basic skills. School administrators and their boards of directors respond instantly to the concern of legislators, and they too are concerned for improvement in teaching the basic skills. Parents are also pretty sore about their kids' lack of achievement. Teachers, when asked, say they are concerned about the nonsupportive learning climate. Translated, this means there's too much acting out in the classroom, too much basic sex play in the halls, and parents won't make the kids do their homework.

FIELD-BASED TEACHER EDUCATOR: A NEW ROLE

Professors now have the time to help school people assuage their concerns. They have the inclination, too. Even after dismissing all the staff unprotected by tenure, schools of education still can't keep their tenured teacher education faculty fully occupied on the assignments they carried in the sixties. At least some education faculty personnel are nervous; they're willing to consider, seriously, different roles and responsibilities. The major new role is that of field-based teacher educator.

(Note: Not all teacher educators must be retooled to become field based. There are still numerous slots to handle teacher preparation classes and graduate classes leading to advanced degrees. A significant number of education professors can continue, unregenerated, provided some of the faculty will take on the task of justifying the profession through direct work with schools on living problems.)

What does it mean to be an effective field-based teacher educator? The first try by the teacher education establishment was a mass migration from the campus to the hinterlands. The courses which had been established as components of certificate or degree programs (candidates had to take them, whether they wanted to or not) were transported to any location where sufficient students would enroll to pay the continuing education department's overhead. This valiant effort is a lot like stripmining: once a course has been offered at a particular location, it cannot be repeated. The 20 percent of the school staff who need credits for credential reasons are those who enroll; they can't take it again for credit, and no one else seems to be interested. Furthermore, the course may have polluted the environment. Because courses designed for campus delivery are only by chance relevant to a particular set of issues or problems in a specific school setting, the courses transported to the field sullied the reputation of the school of education as an agency capable of providing relevant services to teachers and administrators concerned with really significant problems--kid problems.

Career Advancement/Professional Improvement

The potential clients of education professors' services have two kinds of career needs. One is to meet a perfectly legitimate desire for professional advancement or the pursuit of happiness. For this reason, teachers and other school personnel enroll in degree courses, take workshops or travel programs to expand their personal horizons, or go to summer school because it's still the cheapest way to enjoy a reasonable facsimile of a summer resort. Colleges of education are well-prepared to handle this need, at the school person's own expense, and that is as it should be.

The other kind of career need is to improve one's effectiveness with clients--students and the students' parents. The nice thing about teachers is that, by and large, they really do care about doing a better job and are relatively humble about their own competency. They have been systematically victimized because of this professional concern and humility. They have had to pay out of their own incomes for the training they have sought for this need, inasmuch as they have turned to colleges of education for help. And the cost should be borne by the state or the school district; after all, the primary concern of the school district is improving the educational opportunities of their students.

It is this second kind of need which offers opportunities for the survival of professors of education. The first type of need, personal enhancement, is drying up or is being met by a small part of the available professional services in schools of education. The second need is to help school personnel resolve the critical problems of their students, and this need could involve most of the expertise in colleges of education. An attractive new role for many professors of education is to act as a member of a team of problem solvers. Different members of such teams, college and school persons, might not fit this role. But if professors should make a contribution through a systematic effort to become involved with school personnel working on real and current problems, many benefits might accrue. The reputation of schools of education might be dramatically improved. The university administration and other faculties might get off the backs of the educationists. There might even be opportunities for research--spinning off from the quick and dirty efforts to solve immediate problems. The demand for the expertise of professors could become virtually boundless.

Problems of Expertise and Style

There are problems, however. Two obstacles, in particular, seem to block full participation in school improvement programs by a significant number of professors of education. One obstacle has to do with the nature of the professors' expertise, and the other with the style of professoring which has developed in collegiate instruction.

Professors of education have developed an expertise based on their analyses of research and experience about teaching and learning. Their function has been to prepare beginning teachers to serve in any of a wide spectrum of schools, with pupils of varying interests and needs. The same is true of graduate courses in education. Professors are expert at presenting knowledge and skills that are generalizable. School improvement programs, however, need help on site-specific problems for a unique group of learners. Education courses offer principles which may or may not be applicable to a local problem and a local school staff. What professors of education are good at doing is useful for local problem-solving provided the professors' attention can be focused on that part of their vast knowledge which is specific to the local problem. Conscientious professors nearly always cover a lot more in a three-credit class than any team really needs to know in order to enhance their ability to solve their own problem--and often what is covered may not be relevant at all.

The other major obstacle for professors of education in becoming problem solvers is that they are products of the university instructional system. The professor has learned, through constant association with students and other professors, how to assume the traditional role of authoritative teacher and expects students to be consistently acquiescent. This traditional role can be a major block to effective problem solving. While teachers are adept at assuming the college student role when they are taking courses, they do not believe that anyone else knows as much as they do about their students and those students' capabilities. In other words, in a school problem-solving project, roles get scrambled. Sometimes the teacher is the authority; sometimes the professor as external consultant is the authority. Each can learn from the other.

A few teacher educators seem to possess a talent for relating to groups of teachers, parents, and school administrators in a way that makes them effective moderators for such a process. They are good listeners. They can translate expressions of need so that the existing collegiate delivery systems can provide some sort of consultant services. They can identify the stage in the problem-solving process which prevails in a particular site at a particular time. At our school of education we have found one such teacher educator.

Unfortunately, many educationists will never make it as collaborators with school personnel. There's something about the professorial style of communication that projects academic arrogance. As in racism or male chauvinism, cues are transmitted by words or tones of voice or in the silent language of gestures and postures. Short of a couple of years on a psychiatrist's couch, there may be no way to reform these experienced academicians so that they are acceptable to teachers.

The schools do need help. Although much of the process of solving the critical problems of learners in a specific school can be carried out only by the local staff, their solutions are likely to be much more effective given outside assistance. Colleges of education can provide a lot of useful assistance to local schools. The reform of teacher education depends on some technique for putting professors' expertise (which is designed for leisurely digestion by students remote from actual problems) together with the ongoing efforts to meet the specific needs of learners and their teachers.

INSERVICE FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS

The obvious approach would seem to be special programs to retrain those professors for whom there is some hope. Who will do this training? Who will pay for it? Will the "target" professors come to the training? What if we hold a teacher educator training program and nobody comes? Sadly, we must be realistic. Partly because professors of education believe they are the experts on training, they probably can't be taught. They can learn; but they can't be taught. A more practical approach toward reform may be to find ways to use those pieces of a professor's expertise that are acceptable to a particular school task force and fit them somewhere into the problem-solving process.

Two years ago, the Teacher Corps project at Western Washington University, Bellingham, developed a sequence of three graduate courses which were designed to implement a local problem-solving activity. Individual teachers or teams of teachers contracted to complete some aspect of the school study. Each contract was approved when signed by (a) a representative of the school district, (b) a representative of the teachers organization, and (c) a representative of Western Washington University. The sign-offs were evidence that the proposed work would indeed be a contribution to the all-school project. The first course was entitled "Needs Assessment"; the second, "Designing and Implementing Strategies for Change"; and the third, naturally, "Evaluating Education Programs." The entire sequence was intended to serve as the vehicle for a one- to three-year school improvement program; therefore, the school district paid the registration fees of all teachers who participated.

Initially, the program was a success, at least on the whole. The Graduate School put its seal of official approval on the offering. After the first year, however, the work of different teachers and task forces was wildly varied. Some contracts resulted in exemplary products, with teachers putting in far more time than expected. But some were frankly ripoffs, and the system for guaranteeing the quality of the individual projects broke down.

The University faculty involved and also the school staff still had faith in the teacher-designed inservice model. They realized, however, that the model needed some changes.

Most of the problems were of a type that the School of Education should have foreseen. The local staff mainly relied on their own collective experience and knowledge. They should have explored alternatives to the change strategies they opted for. They should have looked to other sources for more information about the problems they were attempting to solve. They should have asked for help on evaluation and ways of obtaining more accurate data about the needs of students and teachers. No one professor could have provided all that information. Collectively, a lot of professors could; but a lot of professors attempting to teach one three-credit course is not very cost effective, so a variation on the major theme of teacher-designed inservice education was needed.

The "Minicourse" Approach

The Teacher Corps staff came up with a notion of site-specific "minicourses." The minicourse would consist of ten contact hours with a professor at the school site. A representative of a group of teachers would confer with the professor of choice to develop specifications for the information or skills which would meet the exact needs of that group. A member of the Teacher Corps staff arranged the meetings and took care of all support matters. Teachers could opt for one or more minicourses as part of the total three-credit graduate course. Professors received an honorarium from Teacher Corps for developing the courses and delivered the courses as part of their regular load. That meant the School of Education or the individual professors actually were contributing the participating professors' services. The 15 minicourses developed and taught generally expanded the school problem-solving activity by providing more information about the problem area and about different alternatives for solving the problem.

The minicourses have been well received. Teachers are highly motivated, because they feel they own these courses. Far more professors are involved in field-based education; almost any professor has ten hours of instruction that could be useful to somebody, working on some problem. The minicourses probably raised the quality level of the school improvement projects. None of the courses resulted in the solution of a major problem, but in their entirety they served to broaden the base of knowledge of those working on the problems.

Most of us think we have moved two steps forward and no more than one back. The problem-solving process in which school personnel and college consultants cooperate, with community advice, seems to be a promising method for improving the educational opportunities of young people. It is a process that is direct and flexible. At least one university graduate school and one school of education have found it possible in their collective conscience to approve first-class, A-1 graduate credit for courses developed by school personnel rather than university professors.

Some professors had a learning experience which they thought was helpful. They designed the experience themselves to a large degree. The minicourse experiment was not exactly earthshaking, but it suggests a way that professors can learn, even if they can't be taught.

GRAND DESIGN FOR COLLABORATIVE PROBLEM SOLVING

These are the assumptions developed by the Teacher Corps staff and staff members of the School of Education at Western Washington University during 1978.

1. The inservice teacher education approach most likely to affect the quality of schooling is one in which the school staff, the parents, and external consultants combine to resolve the critical problems of pupils.
2. The key members of the cast are the teachers.
3. The collaborative design with the most power will stimulate teachers to assume the key roles of initiating the project, defining the critical problems of youth, and evaluating the outcomes of attempts to resolve problems.
4. Teachers have more effect on the school program and the student population when they take collective action than when they are "inserviced" as individuals (especially when the assumption of those in control of inservice programs is that the purpose of the program is to provide remedial training for the teachers).
5. The problem-solving approach as applied to school improvement consists of these steps:
    a. The local staff agrees on a problem area.
    b. Critical problems are assessed by comparing pupil achievements (cognitive and/or affective) against aspirations for pupils--aspirations of school staff, parents, and the pupils themselves.
    c. The staff organizes for attack on the problem.
        --They improve their own interpersonal communication skills; that is, they define the ground rules for working together so that, at least, the products of the process are not worse than the problem.
        --They set up a tentative schedule of activities.
        --They identify the services they will request from external consultants.
    d. They seek more information about the problem area.
    e. They examine a variety of strategies for resolving the problem.
    f. They select one or more strategies and design tentative evaluation procedures.
    g. They carry out the trial strategies.
    h. They evaluate what appear to be the results.
    i. They decide what to do next.
6. There are two kinds of assistance that education faculty members might provide:
    a. They might provide a person whose assigned load would be devoted in large part to coordinating the process, advising local persons on their process alternatives, and acting as broker of talent from the university.
    b. They might provide individual faculty consultants for specific and limited assistance at certain steps in the problem-solving process.
        --Faculty members, through the device of ten contact-hour "minicourses," could provide information about the problem area and about various alternatives the local staff might

consider in designing their own strategies. In addition, faculty members could provide expert knowledge of ways to improve the assessment of needs and the evaluation of outcomes. The local staff also may need a specialist in human relations.

7. Judicious use of faculty members from the university could increase the quality of local problem solving. The main activity will depend on local leadership.
    - --The school administration and the teachers organization together should supply this leadership.
8. The academic system for scattering the expertise of professors can be bent to assist this local problem-solving process; for example, the credit structure can be adapted. Faculty members can report their contributions in scholarly journals.
9. Education faculty members select themselves into three groups:
    - Group 1--"Great idea. Let me at 'em."
    - Group 2--"I'll try it this once." (or) "Well, I need a gold star."
    - Group 3--"I don't wanna. Leave me alone."
10. There are enough people in Groups 1 and 2 to justify the serious study of this approach to revise, or reform, teacher education.
    - --Teacher Corps project funding can and should make it possible to test, evaluate, and document a pilot study of this approach.

TEACHER EDUCATORS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF EMERGING FIELD EXPERIENCES

Robert E. Grinder, Virginia Boyle, and Lou M. Carey[1]

Teacher education is entering an increasingly positive growth phase. Standards for accreditation have edged steadily upward, knowledge bases in the foundational and professional disciplines are becoming highly creditable, and research is improving the scholarly basis for education decision making. But despite this progress, new concerns leave no time for complacency. Pressures have intensified, for example, to improve the quality of instruction in classrooms, to ensure that young people meet minimal competencies for promotion and graduation, and to address individual differences, basic skills, and multicultural issues.

Teacher educators are responding by continuing to improve in traditional ways--by refining standards and advancing knowledge and scholarship; and they are also focusing attention on a new approach--maximizing the pedagogical value of field experiences. Field experiences, for example, offer promise of elevating teacher education to new levels of effectiveness. Prospective teachers often find opportunities in the field to explore different aspects of teaching, gain a sense of accomplishment from practical experiences, and acquire attitudes that lead to stronger professional commitment. Classroom teachers find field programs more effectively related to life in the classroom than campus-based courses.

Adaptation of the unique qualities of field experiences to teacher education requires that a new phase of collaboration be initiated among colleges and universities, local education agencies, state departments of education, federal education agencies, and professional associations. Education faculties in higher education must thus define their mission in order to capitalize on their particular strengths and enhance their relative significance. The challenge they face in establishing a niche is great because expertise in field experiences is widely shared; consultants from industrial and education agencies, professors of higher education, school administrators, subject matter specialists and coordinators, and teachers themselves perform both formal and informal roles. Howey (1976, p. 26) estimated that the professions provide a resource person for every few teachers.

To meet the challenge, then, faculties responsible for teacher education might address three basic issues: (a) identify the problems encountered when campus-based roles are extended to the field; (b) establish ways field experiences can be used to strengthen professional career development; and (c) develop procedures for planning to participate in field experiences. These issues are analyzed in detail following a discussion of the history of inservice education in the United States.

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[1] The three authors separately prepared the sections of this paper: Grinder--"Historical Overview of Inservice Practices in the United States" and "Field Experiences and Professional Career Development"; Boyle--"Survey of Field Experiences, Arizona State University"; Carey--"Planning for College Participation in Inservice Education."

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF INSERVICE PRACTICES IN THE UNITED STATES

Higher education may be distinguished from all other agencies engaged in teacher education by its emphasis on scholarly investigation. Ideally, higher education provides a source of eternal knowledge. Consider Johann Fichte's statement upon the founding of the University of Berlin in 1811: "The University is the visible manifestation of the immortality of our race because it permits nothing truly existent to perish. . . . It is the visible manifestation of the unity of the world, of the epiphany of God, and of God himself" (Ziolkowski, 1978).

Our current views of higher education are more secular, but the spirit of Fichte's proclamation lives on. Higher education today provides an atmosphere relatively free of economic and political pressures. Reflection, speculation, and analysis may ensue; significant questions may be formulated; and basic and applied research is strongly encouraged. Higher education gives rise to perspective on the use of natural resources and understanding of the forces shaping social welfare. Faculty members are accountable less for products than for creative ideas. Inquiry, knowledge production, and objective analysis are uniquely the strengths of higher education, and the other agencies involved in teacher education cannot match them. As Nash and Ducharme (1974) asserted, "It is simply inconceivable that the humanistic, system-disturbing, and reforming skills needed to achieve larger societal ideals and purposes can be achieved while training is located exclusively in the public schools."

The history of teacher training reveals that higher education has struggled traditionally to uphold and nurture scholarship. The saga begins with the dame schools, colonial America's answer to the contemporary elementary school. Teacher education was unknown and teachers were pedagogically naive. Instruction in beginning reading or writing was provided by a woman in her own home for a small fee per pupil. Children were driven to learn by corporal punishment, and the dame schools became renowned for a particular disciplinary technique--the dames would rap the heads of disorderly pupils with their thimbles, which usually were handy because the dames often engaged in knitting or sewing during the time that they were teaching.

The demand for sequenced classes, age grading, small homogeneous classes, and more effective teaching and curricula eventually led to recognition of the need for pedagogical training and, in turn, to the establishment of the first normal schools. The normal schools arose outside the mainstream of traditional higher education to provide training for elementary teachers who would staff the one-room rural schools soon to dot the countryside from coast to coast. The conventional colleges and universities thus isolated themselves in the early stages of teacher education. Their images as citadels of scholarship remained pure and intact.

The need for both elementary and secondary teachers grew voraciously in the early years of the 20th century; however, the normal schools lacked the faculty, library resources, and research capabilities for meeting the demand. Consequently, the colleges and universities introduced programs in teacher education. Comprehensive offerings were in place by 1925, and suddenly the traditional institutions of higher education entered into direct competition with normal schools. But from the start the art of scholarship was considered as important as that of instruction. The teaching loads of education faculty in these institutions today are adjusted to foster productivity in scholarship; however, in the recently established university settings--which generally have evolved from the normal schools--faculty loads reflect responsibilities oriented primarily toward teaching. As a consequence, scholarship may be effusively supported in the new universities, but more at the level of rhetoric than implementation, and faculty members often must use their individual initiative to create research opportunities.

The earliest instances of inservice, which were authentic field experiences, were provided by neither normal schools nor universities. In 1839 a teacher institute was organized in Hartford by Henry Barnard, then secretary of the Connecticut State Board of Education. Teachers hired for the first public schools were poorly trained, and those participating in the institute observed experienced teachers in the process of teaching. Barnard's idea captured the fancy of the teaching profession, and institutes proliferated throughout the nation. They helped inexperienced teachers develop knowledge of subject matter, organize presentations logically, acquaint themselves with school management, and acquire professional interests.

The institutes were augmented about 1870 by reading circles. These circles originated in London for the purpose of acquainting teachers with literature. After the first reading circles in this country were initiated by teachers in Ohio, they attracted a great deal of attention and spread within a few years to 12 additional states. The circles were organized by teachers themselves, usually under the auspices of a state reading-circle board, and thousands of teachers were induced to read and study selected professional books as a consequence of their participation. State and county teachers organizations provided a wide selection of books, well-designed topical outlines for study, and questions for discussion. Reading circles thus prospered in two-thirds of the states shortly after the turn of the century and enabled countless teachers to improve their literary backgrounds.

Interest in the institutes and reading circles diminished as normal schools improved the quality of their instructional programs and as traditional institutions of higher education engaged in teacher education. Inservice training in the field, as initially conceptualized, was gradually being rendered superfluous. However, emerging requirements in every state for further professional training as prerequisite to long-term certification for teachers led both the normal schools and the colleges and universities to enter the inservice arena via summer sessions. The success of the summer adult education programs held at Chautauqua, New York, had indicated that summer instruction for teachers might be exportable to college and university campuses. By 1880 four distinguished institutions of higher education--Harvard, Amherst, Wisconsin, and Indiana--had introduced summer sessions as a form of teacher inservice. By 1900 summer sessions were prospering throughout the United States; by World War I a summer session program was accessible to nearly every teacher.

Via summer sessions, higher education entered the inservice market with its emphasis on scholarship intact. Either teachers were brought to campus or the campus was brought to them, and faculty loads were proportioned the same in either site. Professors conducted classes, as they always had, by communicating with students through lectures and reading materials. Inservice education, to the extent that it was a function of interaction between higher education and the schools, was a unilateral, hand-me-down process.

Resources in higher education were allocated to the teacher education units on the basis of credit hours earned by students, and the costs of inservice programs were expected to parallel the expenses of the courses on campus. Faculty members teaching the inservice courses, whatever their location, were to attain promotion, merit salary increments, and professional recognition according to the same standards as their colleagues who participated solely in on-campus programs.

Faculty members in institutions of higher education (IHEs) have long believed the classroom format of the campus course satisfactorily met teachers' needs. Pressure on the faculty to function conventionally stifled voices urging better integration of academic and field experiences. But we are now in a new era. Therefore, given the assumption that the quality of teacher education could be increased by effective coordination of field experiences and academic programs, how is the competition for time and resources to be resolved? The demand for scholarship is unlikely to diminish, and each unit of teacher education has only limited quantities of professional expertise and resources to share; moreover, not all faculty members have the skills for field participation. Hence, in the face of the practical limitations, opportunities to provide field experiences greatly exceed the capacity of higher education to deliver them.

The answer to the dilemma lies perhaps in a recent statement of the Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching (CEPT) of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education: the primary role of higher education in field experiences, which the Commission viewed primarily as inservice education, is "to prepare public school personnel competent to carry out assessments and research basic to such programming" (Howsam et al., 1976, pp. 102-103). The Commission statement thus accords with the traditional expectations of faculty in higher education: to function in the field as consultants and researchers while school personnel conduct and evaluate the field activities.

SURVEY OF FIELD EXPERIENCES, ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

Speaking at the annual meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Kevin Ryan (1978) stated that field experiences in teacher training are the victims of "limited theory, little fundamental research, and little use of concepts from related disciplines." Henry J. Hermanowicz (1978), at the same meeting, claimed that inservice education has become a "disaster area." These are common indictments of field experience programs. Are they based on the reality of the situation, or are these generalizations founded in speculation?

What is the state of field experiences in both preservice and inservice education? How extensive are field programs offered by colleges of education: what experiences are included in field programs, for whom are these programs planned, and what faculty and other personnel are involved? What commitments and resources do the colleges of education contribute to support field programs?

To explore these largely unanswered questions, a brief survey of the role of field experiences was conducted at Arizona State University. The ASU College of Education is comprised of eight departments: three preservice departments (Secondary Education, Elementary Education, and Special

Education) and five supporting departments (Educational Technology, Educational Psychology, Educational Administration, Higher Education, and Adult Education). Since each of the preservice departments functions relatively independently, data pertaining to programs, courses, faculty involvement, and enrollments were largely known only by the faculty involved. Therefore, a brief survey was designed to obtain information from the faculty about (a) purposes and description of each field program in operation; (b) specific activities in which faculty members were engaged, and what services they were performing in both preservice and inservice field programs; and (c) the resources for field programs, and how the College of Education was supporting those programs.

PROGRAMS

The survey was administered to faculty members participating in field experiences in the Secondary, Elementary, and Special Education departments, because of their extensive involvement in the field. Faculty members interviewed had been designated by departmental chairpersons as actively engaged in field programs; a quarter or more of their load was assigned to teaching and/or coordinating field programs.

As a result of the interviews, 16 field-based programs were identified. All have preservice components; 12 also have inservice components. Secondary programs surveyed included the Secondary Education On-Site Program, the Thunderbird High School Teacher Center Program, and the East High School/Arizona State University Teacher Center Program. The Secondary Education On-Site Program is a model teacher education program developed, piloted by professors, and expanded from two original sites to more than 20 schools throughout Maricopa County; the other two programs were designed by both classroom teachers and college faculty. In Elementary Education the Outreach Program, with three sites, was surveyed. This broad-based teacher preparation program provides students a range of experiences, with instruction offered by several faculty members in Elementary Education. Finally, a survey was made of the Special Education program block, which is a preservice multidisciplinary program that crosses all grade levels. In this multisite program preservice students can gain classroom experiences with special students.

Among the common purposes of the various programs were: (a) providing for teacher preparation and certification, (b) improving instruction, (c) assisting inservice teachers to individualize reading instruction, (d) teaching communications skills to teachers, and (e) meeting various requirements of school boards and superintendents. In field-based preservice programs, student experiences included observing, aiding, tutoring, teaching, and instruction. Inservice teachers experience interning, practicums, research, applied projects, coordination, facilitation, and instruction. Sites for the programs were in elementary, middle, junior high, and senior high schools. Urban, suburban, and rural schools were represented.[2]

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[2] Many graduate field courses were not included in this study; the survey was limited to field programs which consisted of a cluster of experiences.

FACULTY ACTIVITIES IN FIELD PROGRAMS

In the second part of the survey, faculty members were asked to identify their activities in the field programs, from a list that included curriculum development, instructional improvement, resources and materials, counseling and advising, developmental psychology, educational policy issues, and special education. They were asked to specify (a) the group with which they were involved--teacher inservice, student preservice, paraprofessionals or counselors, administrators, and other staff members; and (b) the type of involvement--instruction, applied research, basic research, coordination of activities.

In both preservice and inservice programs, instruction and coordination were the major areas of faculty involvement; curriculum development and instructional improvement activities, however, also received considerable attention. A small number of faculty members were involved in applied and basic research, and a few cited work with paraprofessionals, counselors, administrators, and other staff members.

According to this survey, field-based programs heavily emphasize teaching responsibilities. Coordination, human relations, and supervision are necessary, time-consuming elements. Program evaluation, assessment, and feedback appear to be informal rather than formal. Research on field-based teacher education programs as an ongoing activity of the College of Education is limited.

RESOURCES FOR FIELD PROGRAMS

The third part of the survey attempted to measure the College's resources and support for field programs.

Instructional Resources. Most faculty members agreed that instructional resources were adequate in a minimal sense. Most had not considered that more of the on-campus support for instruction could be made available for use at field sites.

Travel. Approximately one-fourth of those surveyed indicated travel resources were inadequate. Apparently some faculty members receive travel funds while others do not. In addition, no compensation is given for time required for travel to and from field sites. In some cases, this travel adds two or three hours to a faculty member's day.

Teaching Loads. Approximately two-thirds of those surveyed saw assigned loads as falling short of ideal loads; one-fourth load time for a field-based program added up to many more hours per week than a university-based class for equal load time. Actual hours spent on field-based programs ranged from two hours for program maintenance to a maximum of 60 hours for a preservice/inservice teacher center program. Relatively heavy teaching loads prevailed, and teaching load assignments failed to take into account time for travel, consulting, discussions, public relations, supervision, problem solving, and advising. Assigned loads did not follow the formula for on-campus courses--two preparation hours for each contact hour.

Support Facilities. The need of support facilities for field-based programs covers a tremendous range, depending on activities encompassed.

Those activities can vary from simple observation, to participation in the off-campus classroom, to complex activities requiring library resources, a materials development site, and office and storage space.

Relation to Faculty Professional Growth. All who responded indicated that field-based programs exerted a major effect on their professional growth. The following statements describe the existing situation and its negative effects on research and publications:

1. Split loads on-campus/off-campus do not equate. On-campus courses involve direct tuition in small classes or seminars. Off-campus courses involve a wide range of activities: goodwill building, direct tuition, advising or consulting, detailed individualized explanations, and materials construction.
2. Graduate assistants are inappropriate compensation for load expectations in field-based programs; they may be helpful in dealing with some issues, but they require direction and do not actually free faculty members from involvement.
3. The expectation of two hours of preparation for each contact hour is unrealistic in the field. Reflective thought is needed, yet little time is available on-site for contemplation. Faculty members are expected to be expert, but no bases for developing expertise are provided.
4. Professors teaching on-campus courses deal with issues which provide insights for professional growth, writing, and research, while off-campus professors deal with events, sequences, and occurrences. Therefore, professors may actually wither rather than grow through interaction in off-campus courses.

Results from the survey suggest that field programs have emanated from faculty and departmental responsiveness to students' and teachers' needs in the field; they have grown rather haphazardly and have expanded rapidly because of their popularity among preservice and inservice teachers. Their growth indicates that coordination of field programs and continued research and assessment are now pressing issues.

The ASU College of Education has appointed an Associate Dean for Field-Based Services, and with the support of Teacher Corps a task force has been selected to investigate development of a Collaborative Council for Field-Based Programs. The task force is identifying issues and moving toward structures that may be a means to resolving the issues and developing policy.

Nevertheless, the assumptions of Ryan and Hermanowicz are supported by the survey of field-based activities at Arizona State University. How, then, can these challenges be met? What resources can colleges of education commit to supporting the field programs?

FIELD EXPERIENCES AND PROFESSIONAL CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Responsibilities are relatively comprehensive for faculty members who provide field experiences. As Figure 1 indicates, obligations and demands placed on faculty members in inservice in the field are different from those in preservice on campus. Figure 1 also suggests that the approach advocated by the CEPT report may be too detached. Faculty members in the field today invest inordinate quantities of time in building and establishing human relationships. Reflective thought is critically needed, yet little opportunity is available for contemplation and critical analysis. The solution lies in building realistic expectations into faculty loads. Figure 2 suggests, for example, how time in the field may be differentiated in three different patterns: (a) researcher/analyzer, (b) coordinator/program developer/consultant, and (c) learning specialist.

Researcher/Analyzer. Persons occupying this role focus largely on inservice education, and their loads are comparable to those of the average on-campus faculty member. Their teaching loads (T) may be on campus or off campus. Assuming the professors on campus have equitable teaching and scholarship loads, the researcher/analyzer can use research time (R) for scholarship and study of field experiences. Such support as travel resources, graduate assistants for data collection, computer time, and secretarial services will be needed, and may be provided through a support center; for example, a "Bureau of Educational Services" or a "Center for Research on Field Experiences."

Coordinator/Program Developer/Consultant. Persons occupying this role may focus on either preservice or inservice and are especially likely to engage in the tasks described in Figure 1. The load may be divided equitably among teaching (T), research and scholarship (R), and service (S).

Figure 1
ELEMENTS OF DIFFERENTIATED IHE STAFF PATTERNS--
PRESERVICE/INSERVICE

	COMMON SKILLS	PRESERVICE SKILLS	INSERVICE SKILLS
OBLIGATORY	Interpersonal skills in relationship building/establish respect (PR) Awareness raising/surface needs of constituents	General Education/(foundations) Tuition and group dynamics Coordinate placement grade performances of students Liaison with cooperating teachers Plan/coordinate program for IHE students	Needs assessment Detailed, individualized explanations Solid intuition based on experience/resource for technical information
OPTIONAL	Advising/consulting Curriculum development	Evaluation of program General research/preservice education	Research

The service expectation may be particularly heavy; and for effective use of resources, persons in this role might be strongly committed to investing the time allocated for research to scholarship in field experiences. The same support resources needed for the research/analyzer must also be available to the coordinator/program developer/consultant.

Learning Specialist. Persons occupying this role probably will function primarily in preservice education. The individual must seek the optimal balance between off-campus and on-campus teaching assignments (T). To maintain satisfactory levels of participation in the mission of higher education, the learning specialist must also have opportunity for research (R) and service (S). The role demands a great deal of expertise, including being well-grounded in a discipline, understanding how schools function, being acquainted with developmental and learning theories, knowing quantitative and evaluational procedures, being skilled in counseling and group processes, and being aware of school financing and state and community relations.

Figure 3 (see p. 22) describes how the three dimensions of professional activity--teaching/learning (T), research and scholarship (R), and service (S)--relate to faculty professional renewal; it also indicates the intricacies of funding among renewal and professional activities. This figure suggests that the activities associated with professional renewal should be viewed as exceedingly comprehensive, involving teaching and

Figure 2
IHE STAFF DEVELOPMENT--POSSIBLE LOAD PROPORTIONS

Researcher/Analyzer

Research (R) = 1/2	Teaching (T) = 1/2

Coordinator/Program Developer/Consultant

Research (R) = 1/3	Service (S) = 1/3	Teaching (T) = 1/3

Learning Specialist

Research (R) = 1/4	Service (S) = 1/4	Teaching (T) = 1/2

service as well as research and scholarship. Each of the proposed professional renewal activities listed in Figure 3 involves particular costs on the part of the institution. Consider, for example:

Clusters. Faculty members group themselves in clusters centered on specific topics. Members of the cluster participate during the time assigned for research. A coordinator, however, may be elected and given released time to organize literature searches, agenda for meetings, and data collection. A graduate research assistant may be assigned to the cluster to foster developmental activities.

Specialists/Tutors. Faculty members who are experts in course development, teaching skills, instructional technology, measurement and evaluation, or research design may be released from part of their load to assist individual faculty members to gain professional strengths in one or more of these areas. The faculty would be expected to use time released for research, and the specialist would provide guidance for those activities.

Visiting Scholars. Experts in important developmental areas are brought to campus for short or long periods.

Travel Grants. Travel resources are provided for visiting institutions where exemplary activities are underway.

Released Time/Developmental Activity. Faculty members are released from part of their regular load to work on a new course, devise a program, consult in the field, or engage in a research project.

Mini-Sabbaticals. Individuals may be released from their institutional responsibilities at any time, for short or long periods, to improve their professional skills.

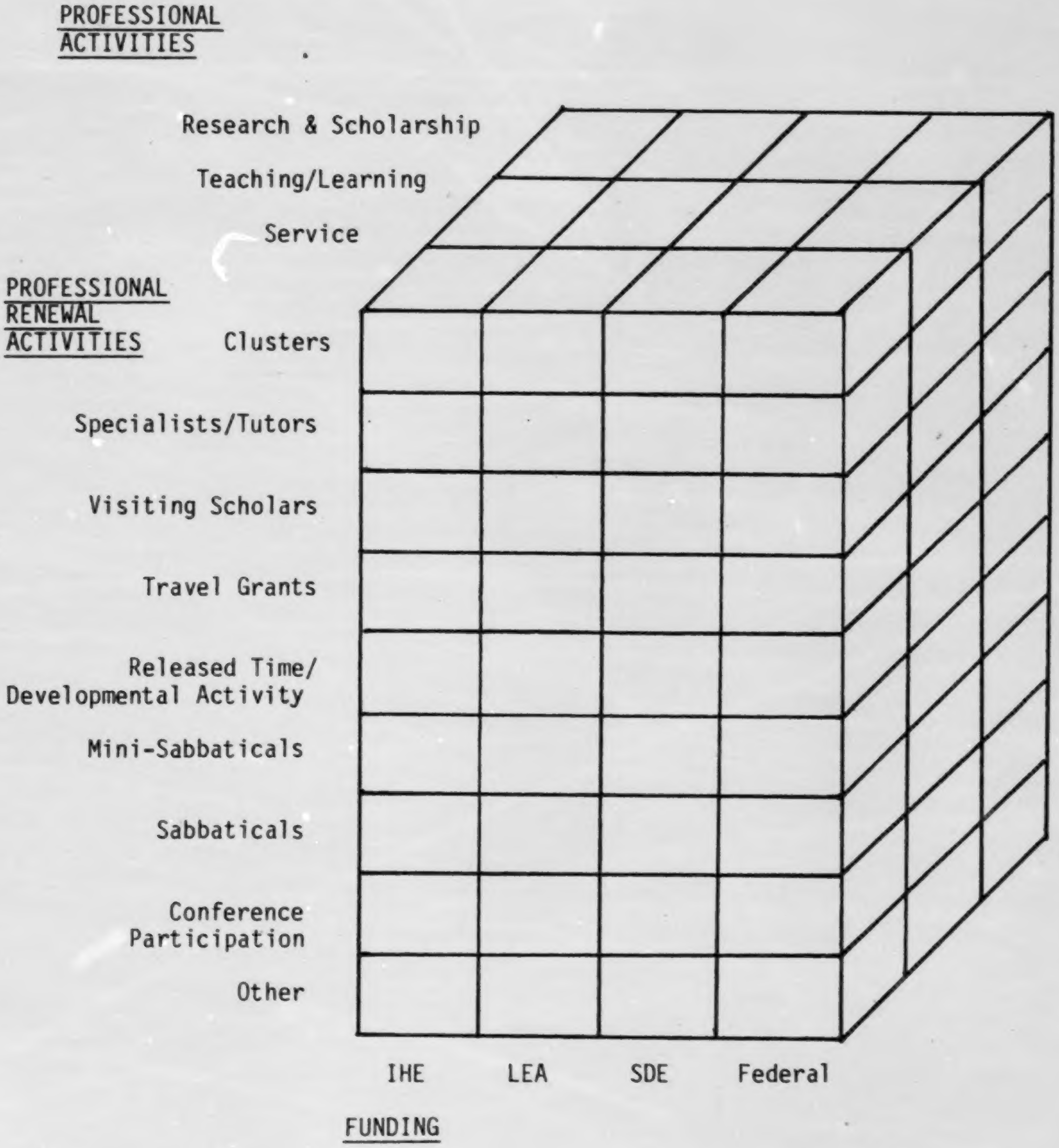
Sabbaticals. Sabbatical leaves are granted with full salary for one semester or half salary for an academic year every seventh year of employment.

Conference Participation. Travel funds are made available for attending professional meetings to read papers and share ideas.

Other. Workshops and seminars may be provided during semester breaks to explore various methods or techniques of instructional design, consulting, and research.

Each of the professional renewal activities clearly requires commitment of resources; for example, released time for faculty members, open positions for visitors, and travel funds. How, then, are limited resources to be apportioned? What priorities must the unit establish for obtaining the objectives of optimally providing both field experiences and faculty renewal? The task of determining the priorities for field-based programs requires careful step-by-step analyses. A method for identifying priority activities in inservice education is discussed here, because it is in this area that faculty members must acquire new skills in planning and instruction.

Figure 3
DIMENSIONS OF FACULTY RESPONSIBILITY AND
OPPORTUNITIES FOR STAFF RENEWAL


PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES
Research & Scholarship
Teaching/Learning
Service
PROFESSIONAL RENEWAL ACTIVITIES
Clusters
Specialists/Tutors
Visiting Scholars
Travel Grants
Released Time/ Developmental Activity
Mini-Sabbaticals
Sabbaticals
Conference Participation
Other
IHE
LEA
SDE
Federal
FUNDING

PLANNING FOR COLLEGE PARTICIPATION IN INSERVICE EDUCATION

There is a growing demand for colleges to provide inservice programs for school district personnel. The theme of the 1979 Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education will be inservice programs for school personnel. New 1978 Teacher Corps rules require participating colleges to plan collaborative inservice programs with school districts. The Association of Teacher Educators has focused attention on emerging inservice programs for the past few years and will continue this emphasis for its 1979 national conference. Federal funding encourages school districts either to begin or to improve their inservice programs through teacher centers.

Rather than jumping blindly on the inservice bandwagon, colleges should research the nature of inservice programs and how they differ from current graduate programs aimed at school personnel. There is great potential in expanded inservice programs sponsored by IHEs, but there are problems as well. Many questions are raised by shifting and/or declining college resources. Implications of the differences between college-credit earning and non-credit earning inservice programs are not fully understood. These and other uncertainties point to the need for systematic procedures to study institutional changes that will result from expanded inservice programs.

OPPORTUNITIES AND POTENTIAL PITFALLS

Colleges are not fully aware of the effects of total institutional involvement in inservice programs because these programs are new and have not been thoroughly conceptualized. Some of the opportunities colleges may realize are expanded education programs for practicing teachers and better contact between the colleges and public school personnel.

Program expansion will be necessary to conceptualize and implement an individualized, career-long inservice program for school personnel. Many teachers begin their careers upon completing their undergraduate program at approximately age 22. If they remain in the classroom until retirement, or age 65, then they are potential inservice candidates for 43 years. An instructional program has not yet been conceptualized that would initially help teachers adjust to the classroom, continuously refine and update their skills, periodically revitalize their commitment to the classroom, and foster professional growth through the preretirement years. Inservice programs to facilitate personnel shifts from one career path to another within education are common, but often are not well coordinated with school system needs. Management programs are needed to help administrators keep informed about legislative, social, and technological changes and to incorporate new ideas into their programs. Colleges should analyze inservice programs and plan for those that appear to have the most potential for them as well as for school districts.

The opportunities in new and expanded inservice programs should not overshadow potential pitfalls that must be considered during the analysis and planning stages: (a) loss of teachers and other school personnel currently enrolled in college programs, (b) competition between newly implemented inservice programs and those of other organizations and institutions, and (c) shifts in program resources within the college.

Loss of Teachers in Current Programs. What will be the impact on current college programs if school districts discontinue the practice of equating promotions and salary increments with college credit? Several states such as California, Florida, and Pennsylvania now recognize non-college inservice credits as acceptable for promotion and tenure purposes. Teachers and administrators returning to college for credits to be used for promotion or salary increases now constitute a major portion of the graduate students of many colleges. Decreased mobility among educators in public schools suggests the strong possibility of a parallel decrease in the number of teachers and administrators seeking advanced degrees. These trends signal a need for careful analysis of future college programs and student availability.

Competitive Inservice Programs. How can college personnel be trained rapidly enough to conceptualize, develop, and implement effective inservice programs? Programs of high quality will be needed to establish colleges as leaders among state departments, business groups, and school districts.

Inservice programs offered by colleges are of two basic types: those for credit and those for other than credit. Credit earning inservice programs are proving to be a problem for colleges providing them (Marsh and Carey, 1978). Off-campus delivery of inservice programs generally taxes college resources and faculty motivations and skills. However, inservice programs using credit or degree earning courses as the major instructional mode pose fewer financial and management problems than do noncredit programs. Therefore, the major problem facing colleges is conceptualizing and providing non-credit earning inservice programs that could possibly compete with credit earning programs. These programs, if accepted by colleges, will create changes in college operations. Acceptance may be imperative; both credit and noncredit inservice programs are now being requested by schools, and unless colleges offer both types of programs, other agencies will step in to provide the needed services.

Both credit and noncredit inservice programs for school personnel already exist by legislative mandate in such states as California and Florida. Colleges that currently do not have legislative mandates to provide noncredit instruction for school personnel still have time to evaluate and negotiate roles for themselves in those programs; however, time is important. In most states school districts are offering short-term contracts to individuals, business organizations, and/or colleges to provide noncredit inservice programs for their professional personnel.

Shifts in Program Resources. Rather than looking forward to periods of gradual, consistent program growth and increasing finances to support that growth, colleges continue to experience shifting pockets of growth in some departments or programs and decline in others. Some programs obtain additional missions, personnel, and financing while others wither from a lack of new students, missions, and jobs for graduates. The frequency and location of these trends of growth and decline are difficult to predict and control; often they are affected, for example, by social change and new legislative mandates.

Changing program emphases in colleges create real management problems for college administrators. It would appear easy for the administrator simply to shift existing personnel and material resources from departments that now have a surplus of faculty and resources into programs that must be built or expanded. This simplistic solution, however, confounds a very complex problem involving tradition, academic freedom, and the motivations, self-concepts, and skills of personnel. The degree of cooperation necessary to shift resources to inservice programs may not exist among many departments. Reassigning existing faculty and resources among departments is rare, but it becomes an interesting option when the only alternative may be to dismiss faculty members and administrators whose departments are absorbing disproportionately large shares of college resources as a result of changes in legislation or enrollment.

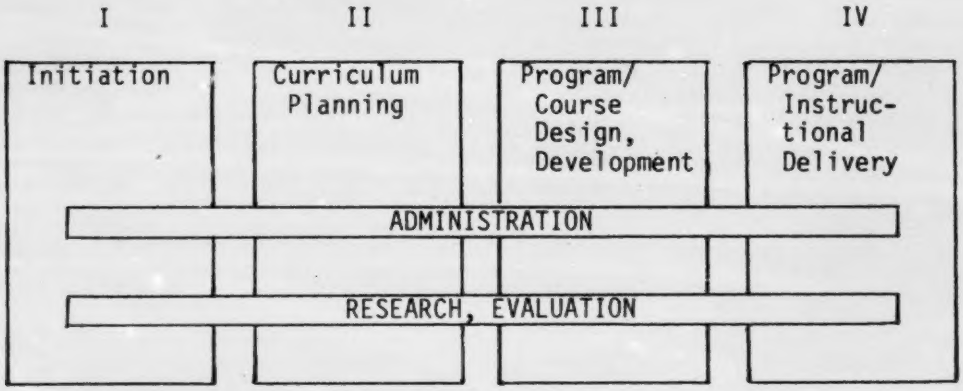
SYSTEMATIC PLANNING AND DESIGN

Rather than promoting existing inservice programs, it may be wiser for colleges to begin by assessing what inservice programs for school personnel are or can become to the college. With statements of purposes and goals directly related to a total inservice program, it may be possible for all those involved in the program such as colleges, school districts, and state departments of education to determine what each is best equipped to offer in such programs.

To design for school personnel a comprehensive inservice program that is not at the expense of current college programs, systematic planning procedures must be employed. Colleges, school systems, and state departments must cooperate in the preparation, certification, and inservice education of school personnel. Because the preservice and inservice programs of all of these organizations affect each other, all should be involved in program planning from the outset. The investment in inservice of each group should be based on its own expertise and mission.

Figure 4 diagrams four phases of activity--initiation, curriculum planning, program/course design and development, and program/instructional delivery--that can be undertaken in a systematic manner to guide the college into inservice planning and decision making. In addition to

Figure 4
ACTIVITY PHASES FOR SYSTEMATIC EXPANSION OF
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION INVOLVEMENT IN
INSERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMS



these four basic phases, ongoing administrative and research activities should be conducted within and across all four phases.

Initiation

Inservice programs often are offered in schools before any type of preplanning has been conducted to determine whether they should be provided or how best to provide them. As a result, teachers and administrators who enroll in college inservice courses often view those courses as irrelevant, boring, ineffective, and wasteful of resources (Boyle and Grinder, 1978; Carey and Marsh, 1978).

Colleges should not enter inservice programs in the instructional delivery phase with the hope that all the planning and work which should have been accomplished prior to program implementation will fall into place (Dick and Carey, 1978; Briggs, 1977). Rather, colleges should enter collaborative inservice programs at the initiation phase, which encompasses all the preliminary activities of evaluation, research, and negotiations and agreements among colleges, state departments of education, and school districts.

The framework for conceptualizing and developing a program must be established at the outset of planning. Establishing a framework for program building requires (a) determining attitudes of involved groups--state department personnel, teachers, school administrators, college faculty members and administrators--toward collaborative planning and programs; (b) assessing the perceptions and performance of school district personnel and the facilities of all interacting groups; (c) projecting potential human, financial, and material resources for new programs; and (d) stating basic goals, roles, and responsibilities for each institution involved.

The amount and stability of resources that school districts and legislatures are willing to invest in development of inservice programs by collaborating groups should be compatible with the resources committed by college administrators. If relatively few resources are made available for a tenuous period of time, then developmental activities and investment of college resources should be in kind.

The amount of support provided need not adversely affect the quality of the inservice program provided by the college. Whatever the resources available, the college should allocate them in such a way that any inservice programs offered are carefully researched, developed, and implemented. Once the role and responsibilities of the college have been tentatively defined and the resources for those responsibilities have been specified, then the college should begin the necessary research development work.

Administration and research/evaluation activities are depicted in Figure 4 as integral, ongoing components of each of the four major phases of inservice program development. Colleges will be expected to play a very active role during the initiation phase. They may be asked to research the collaborative process, design research and evaluation studies, design studies to collect necessary historical and descriptive information, perform data synthesis and analysis tasks, and provide the collaborative group with necessary information to complete the collaboration and negotiation processes. However, simply because colleges have qualified, experienced researchers available to perform those tasks does not mean they should be expected to finance the research and evaluation activities themselves. Resources should be allocated from the total collaborating group and researchers reimbursed for their services during the initiation phase.

The alternative to planning for and financing the research component is for the collaborative group to proceed with plans and decisions with little or no information.

Conducting the initiation phase will be costly. Resources needed for administrative and conceptual task forces in addition to research components should be made available from each collaborating agency. Simply stated, this phase cannot be complete without solid agreement among interacting institutions to work together, a statement of how they will be expected to work together, and a firm commitment of resources to support the expected work. The initial agreements should not be considered permanent; undoubtedly they will need to be revised as the intended program is researched and new information becomes available. However, these statements and agreements should be recorded and circulated among collaborating institutions so they know what to expect from each other. Those charged with planning the curriculum for new programs must know the goals for the inservice program and the responsibilities of each interacting group in meeting those goals.

Curriculum Planning

The three basic decisions to be made during the curriculum planning phase are: (a) Who in the school district should be recipients of inservice programs? (b) What programs should be available for those who are eligible? and (c) When should selected programs be available?

Should inservice programs be provided for professional, technical, and clerical personnel, or should the college be concerned only with professional educators? Groups within the school district to be served must be established before final decisions about inservice program content can be made. Some colleges provide inservice for all school district personnel, some for all professional employees, while other programs focus only on classroom teachers.

The sequencing of selected topics for inservice programs should be analyzed and immediate priorities selected. Virtually all skills have beginning, intermediate, and advanced applications. Some inservice topics will be useful only once a year, or less. Some will be needed only once; others may have to be repeated several times for the same group. Still others may be appropriate only for beginning, midcareer, or preretirement personnel. Some topics will attack critical school district problems such as mainstreaming or desegregation, while others will target continuing problems of effective instructional or administrative planning and delivery.

A strategy for selecting priority inservice topics based on pertinent criteria should include: (a) identifying each group to be served; (b) determining both immediately critical and ongoing, stable program needs for each group; and (c) deciding what programs are needed by all participating groups, by some groups, or by only one or two groups. Once groups and program possibilities are classified in some manner, decisions about priority topics will become more apparent to the planning group. Such a strategy will help ensure the selection of relevant programs for all types of district personnel to be served and avoid the spending of all available resources on sensational topics or on personnel in highly visible jobs. Some resources should be allocated each year for building programs for each group, for emergency but short-term problems, and for low-profile but necessary topics.

Administrative and research activities during the curriculum planning phase are important considerations. A regular management, planning, and research staff will be required during curriculum planning activities. The staff may come from a combination of collaborating institutions or from only one, such as the college. Regardless of where the staff originates, the collaborating group should be responsible for financing and overseeing the activities according to their predetermined role or investment in the inservice program.

Program/Materials Design and Development

Systematic design and development for on-the-job instructional programs have been an integral part of industrial, military, and medical training programs for many years. Although systematic procedures cost more, they appear most appropriate when accountability for learning is the criterion. Industrialists have needed efficient employees to guarantee their profits. The military has needed efficient personnel to guarantee defense readiness. In medicine, poorly trained doctors and nurses would mean unnecessary loss of life. Therefore, these groups allocate the necessary time and resources to the careful research and design of effective instruction for their employees.

In the past education has not committed the resources required for systematic instructional design, for either preservice education programs or inservice programs for school personnel. It appears, however, that concern about the quality of education is increasing. Lay citizens as well as educators are concerned that many students have not learned basic skills in reading and arithmetic by the time they graduate from high school. The genuine desire for better educated youth is causing citizens, legislators, and educators to rethink teacher education programs.

Is it possible to teach better? If so, where do we begin? Retraining and updating skills for all school personnel is a possible solution. Systematic program analysis, similar to that used in industrial, military, and medical inservice, offers a useful process for providing effective programs to increase the accountability of school personnel. An instructional research and design team should be used to analyze, design, and develop programs for high priority curriculum descriptions developed during curriculum analysis activities. Before programs or materials are designed and developed, a large amount of analysis and design work must be accomplished.

Design Personnel. Special expertise not currently employed by school districts or college departments should be sought--at least in an advisory, planning capacity if not on a more permanent basis. Solutions for program planning problems are limited by the conceptual knowledge and foresight of those participating in the planning. Thus, individuals with many different skills will undoubtedly be required for work on the inservice program design teams. In addition to the representatives of the instructors and learners in the inservice programs, these teams might include experts in learning principles and effectiveness; experts in high priority content and curriculum areas; evaluators and researchers; and materials development specialists such as writers, editors, artists, computer programmers/operators, and media experts.

Number and Type of Personnel. The number of school personnel in each type of job to be served through inservice should be known before a program is planned. Some jobs may have only five or six employees in a district while others may have 500 or more to be served. Different types of programs would be needed for education groups with a few members and for those with several hundred or a thousand members, though the content of the programs might be very similar. The numbers and types of employees would affect the logistics of inservice programs.

Instructional Analysis. Topic analyses should be performed for each priority program topic before specific inservice activities are developed. School personnel should be carefully observed to determine what they now do in carrying out their responsibilities, as well as what they should be doing in addition to or instead of what they are currently doing.

These analyses will require careful research and study by different types of experts. Content and process analyses should be performed. The topic analysts must consider the schools of today as well as the schools of tomorrow. They must also research the interrelatedness of jobs performed in school districts; all tasks performed by personnel at the school and district sites--including teachers, support personnel, and management personnel--should be studied to illuminate the nature of these job interrelationships. The initial results of these analyses are descriptions of interrelated tasks to be performed by interacting groups of school personnel. Designs for how best to teach school personnel to perform their tasks effectively are an outgrowth of these interaction analyses.

Research and analyses of the proficiency of school personnel as it relates to learning, instruction, and management of instruction might be ongoing activities. Observations of industrial and military inservice programs indicate that each time a new plateau of proficiency is reached, researchers begin striving for the next higher plateau.

Current Levels of Personnel Job Performance. Research and analysis are required to determine the particular level of instruction needed by each group of individuals. A common finding from the past decade of needs assessment studies in schools is that, to be most efficient, inservice instruction should be individualized. The major reason is that within most school sites, whether elementary or high school, a wide range of personnel proficiency is observable (Carey, 1976). Teachers and administrators vary greatly from individual to individual in their skills and job performance, yet many inservice programs still treat all teachers as one group and all administrators as another group.

Nature of Instruction. Another common theme from recent needs assessment studies (Boyle and Grinder, 1978; Carey, 1977) is that a lecture course followed by a term paper and a final examination is not the only type of inservice program that school personnel envision for themselves. Though many still enjoy a good lecture, they want to try alternative instructional methods as well. Short, interactive instruction that directly relates to job problems is a popular request from practicing professionals, as are high interest materials, the opportunity to practice new skills, and immediate, personal help and guidance in new activities. The technology is available to provide these types of instruction to individuals and to interest groups of various sizes; it is already in use in other professions. Effective means of designing and delivering programs to suit the requests of all school district personnel should be investigated.

Facilities and Equipment. Existing instructional facilities and equipment should be analyzed before inservice programs are designed. Knowledge about the current capabilities of the college, of nearby commercial organizations such as television and radio, and of the school district or districts to be served is critical. It could be unwise to invest initial inservice program resources in acquiring new equipment. However, some of the initial planning resources should be invested in exploring more effective uses for existing facilities and equipment and in anticipating additional equipment needs that may be prescribed for the future.

Examples of new uses for existing program delivery equipment would be to broadcast instruction or information over FM radio channels, to transmit inservice programs using closed circuit television, and to investigate instructional uses for computer systems that most school districts already own for administrative data processing. The hardware for decentralized inservice programs exists already in many school districts. Planning must include an analysis of what is currently available and how existing facilities can be used most efficiently.

Costs. Inservice resources are limited and should be allocated wisely. The costs of systematically planned and developed inservice programs may seem high when compared to current programs. The traditional practice of hiring a content expert to address a group of educators appears to be less expensive than hiring design teams to research inservice topics and develop effective instruction that may be used many times; however, costs can be deceiving. The expert hired for a one-time performance is gone and the money provided for inservice is spent. If the same expert were hired to analyze the problem and help prepare materials for the district or college, then the materials would be reusable long after the expert is gone, for as long as they remain appropriate. Many different teachers, in different buildings, at different times can benefit from carefully developed inservice programs and materials.

When some materials are designed, developed, and ready for use, then the final phase--the instructional delivery phase--is ready to begin.

Instructional Delivery

Though instructional delivery is often considered the point at which inservice programs begin, it is actually the point at which programs become visible to those who implement inservice and to those who receive it.

Where to deliver specific instructional programs, how often, and by what means should have been decided during the design and development phase. The instructional delivery phase consists in the execution of these decisions through effective use of professional and technical program delivery personnel.

The faculty selected for inservice programs must accept new roles for themselves as well as for the school district personnel who will be the learners. Instead of merely lecturing, college personnel can prepare themselves for such tasks as:

1. Assessing school personnel to determine their current skill and knowledge levels, interests, and job aspirations as these relate to prescribed inservice activities

2. Prescribing individualized inservice programs that suit the present status of all participating school personnel
3. Dividing personnel into study groups according to skill levels, interests, and/or aspirations
4. Advising and counseling personnel into appropriate individual courses and/or group activities
5. Adapting available materials and programs for particular school site and district needs
6. Motivating school personnel to become involved in inservice programs
7. Demonstrating, lecturing, and leading discussion groups
8. Acknowledging and rewarding personnel for their progress and work as well as advising and helping those who are not progressing
9. Assessing the ability of school personnel to apply new skills in a simulated situation and again in their actual job situations with existing constraints; this instructional followup will help personnel adjust either their performance or their situation to enhance transfer of learning from inservice programs to job situations
10. Accounting for those who have successfully completed an instructional program, and advising those who have completed the programs into the next level of instruction most appropriate for them.

This list encourages expansion of the role of college faculty members who will be working in inservice programs, from one of teacher and evaluator of knowledge to one of manager of the total instructional process. It implies a more personalized relationship between instructional personnel from the college and school district personnel who are participating as learners in inservice programs.

What is new or unique about what has been suggested here? Many of the suggestions have been recommended before by proponents of individualized instruction and mastery learning, but to date these ideas have not been applied in many preservice or inservice programs for education. Though they are old ideas that have been operational in industry, in the military, and in many professional schools for several years, they are still largely absent from inservice education programs for school personnel.

The hurry to provide inservice training for school personnel is not so great that careless planning for instructional programs can be justified. School personnel occupy their jobs for 20 to 40 years. What rush could justify the delivery of inservice programs that have not been carefully researched and planned and are not instructionally effective? Bad reviews of weak programs will only create doubts about the ability of colleges to deliver effective inservice instruction.

Faculty members in colleges of education have for years provided a large portion of the brain power and intellectual energy required to research, plan, and develop effective instructional programs for business, industrial, and professional inservice training. It is time for colleges to apply their existing capability to conceptualize and build effective inservice education programs for the schools.

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ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRAINTS TO INSTITUTIONALIZING CHANGE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION[1]

Richard I. Arends

The Teacher Corps Project at the University of Oregon is jointly conducted by the University's Division of Teacher Education and the Eugene Public School District. We have three major goals: (a) to develop an interdisciplinary curriculum program at Churchill High School in Eugene, (b) to develop a revised Secondary Teacher Preparation Program at the University of Oregon, and (c) to develop a new model of Inservice Education that reflects a responsive and job-embedded strategy.

To reach those goals, we have planned and conducted activities that are consistent with funding criteria for all Teacher Corps projects: an intern preparation program, a program for community involvement, a participatory governance structure, and special attention to educational materials and strategies that promote multicultural education and learning opportunities for exceptional children. Our project is based on the premise that the best way for school districts and universities to work together is by providing inservice education and technical assistance to each other and by allowing faculty from both organizations to play the roles of experts and trainees alternately, depending upon each other's needs and the type of problem being addressed.

In this paper, I shall speak to the underlying organizational constraints that impede the adoption of change by institutions. The paper that follows will serve as a case study of the University of Oregon's ongoing activities to prepare that institution for change.

THE MEANING OF "INSTITUTIONALIZATION"

In the past decade, billions of dollars have been spent and thousands of projects have been launched to improve the training of teachers and other educators in public schools and in institutions of higher education. Countless good--or at least potentially good--ideas have been proposed. And not a few of the good ideas have been tried out by districts, colleges, and universities across the country.

It is, however, painfully and obviously apparent that not many of the trials have become significant and permanent parts of their host organizations. Like the anadromous fish of the Pacific Northwest--the Salmon and Steelhead--many of the projects have been spawned, have flourished during their two-, four-, or six-year life cycles, and then have died.

I have pondered the meaning of institutionalization in cases such as these. Our language, of course, has a quite definite meaning for the verb "to institutionalize." We use it in reference to what we do with people when they are too defective, dependent, or delinquent to be managed in less restrictive institutions than mental hospitals and prisons. I don't believe that is what we mean when we discuss "institutionalization." Instead, I believe we are considering what the Salmon and Steelhead leave behind before they die--the seeds that ensure yet another cycle of effort. We use the word "institutionalize" as though it came from the root "to institute"--meaning the process of creating, originating, and establishing something of importance; and we are interested in what it will take to ensure that significant and permanent change will result from our efforts in the Teacher Corps Project.

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[1] Some of these remarks formerly appeared in "Organizational and Contextual Constraints to Change: Examples from Secondary Schools and Secondary Teacher Education Programs." Presentation to National Conference for Deans' Grant Projects, Minneapolis, Minnesota, April 1978.

FEATURES OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

With that by way of introduction, let me present my major thesis, which is that change--especially permanent and significant change--is not assured by the presence of federal mandates, special projects, or the good intentions and skillful actions of individuals. Rather, the success of a change effort depends in large part on the characteristics of the organization and environment into which it is introduced.

To illustrate this thesis, I shall discuss some organizational and environmental factors that are influencing institutionalization of new programs in high schools and new secondary teacher training programs in institutions of higher education. My observations are based on some empirical evidence, accumulated in recent years, on the processes of change in education (see Smith and Keith, 1971; Berman and McLaughlin, 1975; Schmuck, Runkel, Arends, and Arends, 1977; Emrick et al., 1977; Arends, Hersh, and Turner, 1978). My observations are also grounded in my recent experiences in secondary schools as part of our Teacher Corps Project and in a Dean's Grant Mainstreaming Project.

HIGH SCHOOLS AS SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS

Five features of high schools, as social organizations, constrain change efforts.

1. High schools are subject-matter oriented rather than child oriented. As Mann (1976) has described, high school teachers, like college faculty, "relate" more to their academic specialties than to providing education for youth. They read journals and go to conferences where subject-matter content is discussed; they don't consider processes of education, such as mainstreaming or multicultural education. Because of their general orientation of relating to an academic field, they are concerned with "covering" content and rarely place importance on teaching methods or other aspects of curriculum. Furthermore, in their academically oriented settings, secondary teachers accrue status from the type of students they serve. They find few rewards in working with students who have difficulty in such traditional academic pursuits as discussing moral issues, writing esoteric essays, or debating theoretical and empirical problems.

2. High schools are organized around specialized departments and Carnegie Units. With rare, innovative exceptions, organizational patterns in high schools promote extreme differentiation of labor and little, if any,

opportunities for integration. Warring camps, aligned with subject-matter specialties, vie over scarce resources and power. All the common empires--the academics, vocationals, coaches, liberals, and conservatives--are experienced in waging war against one another; their strategies can be applied quickly to outsiders who recommend or mandate change.

3. American high schools are large and offer multiple, complex programs. This situation leads high school teachers to deal with many students only in brief sessions. It constrains faculty members from developing a sense of personal responsibility for students' total development. Since several major themes in most Teacher Corps projects (working with exceptional children; multicultural education; and diagnostic-prescriptive teaching) require teachers to think ~~about~~ students' total development, they carry essentially alien concepts into most high schools.

4. The "culture" of students in high schools promotes conformity. Some might assert that these are times when young people believe people should "do their own thing." Cusick's research (1973), however, has demonstrated that students expect each other to conform. Many efforts, such as getting students to learn in different ways or to interact differently, are therefore likely to encounter resistance; the students' culture will work against integrating those who are "different," in whatever way or for whatever reason.

5. Curriculum options in secondary schools are not suitable for many students. At present, academic programs are poorly designed for students who have difficulties in school. Vocational and career education programs often exclude the handicapped and many others. The content and the approaches used in all secondary programs will have to change significantly to respond to unique exceptional children and multicultural education.

INSTITUTIONS THAT PREPARE SECONDARY TEACHERS

Efforts to provide prospective secondary teachers with appropriate understandings and skills seem to require new, collaborative arrangements between departments of regular education, special education, and other units involved in teacher preparation. The new arrangements and programs will not be easily or swiftly created, however. Four contextual features seem to account for some of the difficulties faced by many institutions of higher education.

1. Secondary preparation programs--both inservice and preservice--lack connections among their many parts. In the University of Oregon's Secondary Program, students take required coursework and field experiences from numerous liberal arts departments (such as history, sociology, English, biology), four professional schools (art, music, journalism, and health, physical education, and recreation), and three divisions of the College of Education (educational policy and management, developmental studies and services, and teacher education). In addition, prospective secondary teachers have a practicum that is supervised by a student-operated organization as well as one term of student teaching that is primarily under the supervision and control of practitioners in the public schools.

The complicated configuration just described is not unique to Oregon. Instead, it is common to find numerous sub-faculties that do not share staff, materials, or equipment and that are physically separated from one another. It is quite ordinary to find that decisions about course content and approaches are made independently and that faculty members from different units do not team teach, go to the same conferences, or read or publish in the same journals. Fragmentation of effort and the lack of connections among units that contribute to the same program prohibit providing coordinated learning experiences for prospective secondary teachers and represent a serious roadblock for a change effort.

2. The amount of professional training that is provided to secondary teachers--those in preparation and those in the field--is minimal. Again let me use an illustration from my own institution. Excluding requirements in liberal arts and foundations areas, prospective teachers are trained in the theory and practice of teaching in two 2-credit-hour and two 3-credit-hour courses. Only 90 hours of classroom instruction is provided in the present program--a total that is comparable to a single two-week workshop or institute. Furthermore, given the scarcity of time allocations and current resources, few options exist for adding new offerings or experiences without eliminating others. Programs intended for inservice--even those that lead to the master's degrees--include no more than half that many hours. Even the most interested teacher in the field is unlikely to receive as much as one full week of training per year throughout his or her career.

3. Change is hampered by declining enrollments in institutions of higher education and by the well-publicized oversupply of teachers. These environmental forces have heightened competition for dollars, time, and human energy. In some places, fierce battles have been fought over allocations of faculty positions. The scarcity of resources has tended to make the boundaries between various units and departments more inflexible and impermeable. Without some slack resources--time, in particular--faculty members are prevented from moving into new and collaborative arrangements, even for causes as attractive as preparing teachers to serve handicapped youngsters or to promote multicultural education.

4. We lack an empirical base for defining good secondary teaching that could reform teacher education. A substantial amount of research on teaching over the past two decades is starting to provide us with useful insights into the characteristics of elementary teachers, their classrooms, and the effects these have on students' learning. The studies that may provide the same information about secondary education by and large remain to be done.

CONCLUSION

By way of summary and conclusion, I have two sets of observations. The first set is pessimistic; the second strikes a cautious note of optimism.

In my more pessimistic moments, I would argue that the weight of traditions and the organizational and contextual variables that work against change will make any major breakthroughs unlikely. In the literature of change (see especially Mann, 1976, and Emrick et al., 1977) I can find no example of successful change at the high school level. The track record for significant change in higher education is no better (Lindquist, 1974). If we follow past practice, institutions of higher education will respond to the problem of changing training for teachers by designing a new unit or new course, slipping it into the curriculum, staffing it with a part-time faculty member, and receiving feedback from students that says they have had one more experience that was irrelevant to the task of teaching.

My basic optimism prevents me from stopping here. It is possible, in these times of decreasing enrollments in both the secondary schools and institutions of higher education, that we will redefine our priorities and use freed-up resources to reconceptualize our purposes and strategies. It is possible that high school teachers will see the pressing need for attending to the total development of their students as they are forced to work with more pluralistic student populations. It is possible that colleges of education will rise to the challenge of demanding and acquiring new resources so that relevant, effective teacher preparation curriculums can evolve. I hope my cautious optimism can be justified in the years to come.

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BUILDING READINESS FOR CHANGE:
VIGNETTES FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF OREGON

Karl Hesse

At the University of Oregon, we have found that having a plan for solving the organizational structure problem has been essential to the institutionalization of a new training program. Through a series of vignettes, I shall illustrate some of the readiness activities in our total plan to have an impact on our organizational structure and program. It is clear to me that we have not completed all the tasks we set out to accomplish. It is also clear that program development and change take an extraordinary amount of time and that about half of what happens in this change process is unexpected. Nevertheless we have learned from our planned events--and from the unexpected.

For five years, as a member of a central office curriculum staff in Wisconsin, I watched an inordinate amount of change. I saw literally millions of dollars spent on inservice education, curriculum development, and organizational change. The single tenet characteristic of successful change efforts was "release people and allow them to unleash their own power--allow them to be self-sustaining rather than dependent on external expertise." I have relied on this tenet as I have engaged in change efforts in higher education.

My value system also has been shaped by colleagues at the University of Oregon who study, write about, consult with others about change in education systems. What has impressed me is what they practice when they are changing their real world. Above all, they listen carefully, share their own carefully considered thoughts, and push for honest, sincere interaction. They are willing to take time to meet so that the groups to which they belong will operate effectively.

In the vignettes that follow, I shall first define the program which is the target or subject of our change efforts to provide readers a referent that might parallel their own programs. Then I shall describe six readiness activities that are part of our change cycle. Through these events, discussed here in detail, we have learned the truths described by students of organizational change. Finally, I shall consider some of the problems we face as we move through readiness to change.

THE PROGRAM TO BE CHANGED

The program that is the focus of our development efforts at the University of Oregon is the Secondary Teacher Preparation Program. Some of my colleagues refuse to call it a program at all; they believe it is nothing more than organized anarchy or a bunch of service courses that are loosely tied together at best.

We prepare more than 300 students per year. The program includes approximately 60 quarter hours of general university studies, 60 quarter hours in a chosen subject area, 20 hours in electives, and 38 hours in education.

A further analysis of the professional education component shows that the responsibility for the 38 quarter hours of instruction is parceled out to staff members in a variety of administrative units. What holds the program together is paper and a delicate, complex web of poorly understood bureaucratic commitments, policies, and agreements. Students take 3 hours of social foundations from one division in the College of Education, 6 hours of educational psychology from another division, 3 hours of pre-student practicum from a student-run program called ESCAPE (Every Student Caring About Personalized Education), 10 hours of course work from the secondary education faculty within the Division of Teacher Education, and 16 hours of student teaching coordinated by another unit in the Division of Teacher Education. Furthermore, students in physical education, health, art, or music--as more than half of our secondary students are--receive methods, practicums, and student teaching supervision in their own school or college rather than the College of Education.

READINESS ACTIVITIES IN THE CHANGE CYCLE

Readiness activities are similar to conditioning for a mile run: they include attending to the physiological and psychological needs of the body. In our case the body is the organizational structure--people, policies, relationships, and rewards.

During the past three years, the Division of Teacher Education has become involved in a variety of activities that to an outside observer might appear loosely related. Many of the participants in these activities have been faculty members affiliated with the secondary education program, and consequently much of the focus of change activities has been on that program.

While each event described here is a story in and of itself, together these events form a picture of change in the making. Together they form the base for action.

Gaining Identity. Out of the troubles associated with an NCATE accreditation decision in June 1974, the Division of Teacher Education invested in a year of appeal and of putting the secondary program back together. The Division established an Office of Secondary Education, identified a Director of Secondary Education, described the program, and traced faculty members who taught courses identified as part of that program. In short, the program was given a structure, existing goals were shared, and program resources were identified.

The groundwork was laid. During the 1975-76 school year an advising system was implemented and a program evaluation plan was established. The faculty began to review the curriculum. In retrospect, the secondary program became quietly assertive between 1974 and 1976. The few faculty members who taught secondary courses within the Division of Teacher Education met regularly, the program began to have an identity, and people began to have an interest in its improvement.

Providing Time and Permission for Futuring. During the 1976-77 school year, the secondary faculty began to meet as the Secondary Education Program Review and Evaluation Committee. This committee met at least a dozen times to share common "dreams." Our dreams included (a) earlier and tighter admissions; (b) more rigorous screening of students, to encourage them to make a greater investment/commitment; (c) earlier and expanded experiences in the schools; (d) blocking of the professional courses with field experiences; and (e) providing a reflective experience, so that students could consider what it is important to teach as well as what is taught indirectly (the hidden curriculum). Though taking time for futuring had not been a norm, it was worth the risk, for we began to know one another's goals and expectations.

Establishing a Program Evaluation System. While giving time for futuring, the secondary education faculty simultaneously initiated a formal evaluation of its program. Using an evaluation design adopted in April 1976, the faculty undertook a series of activities intended to accomplish three objectives: (a) extending previous evaluation efforts, (b) placing evaluation activities on a systematic three-year cycle, and (c) providing information that could be used to improve the Secondary Program.

More specifically, the evaluation collected information to answer the following questions:

1. How satisfying and useful are various components of the program?
2. How competent are graduates of the program?
3. What happens to graduates one year after graduation?
4. What positive and negative comments and recommendations for revisions of the program are made?

Three interrelated investigations were conducted during the 1976-77 school year: (a) a survey of undergraduates in the 1976-77 Secondary Program immediately following their student teaching experience, (b) a survey of graduates from the 1975-76 Secondary Program one year after their graduation, and (c) an intensive field study of a selected sample of 1975-76 graduates who were teaching in Oregon one year after their graduation.

Building Problem Solving and Decision Making Structure: Creating a Team. These first three readiness activities--gaining identity, futuring, and program evaluation--have played an important part in our change effort. While engaged in these activities, the secondary education faculty was able to accomplish two crucial things that change literature indicates are paramount if change is to occur. First, we described our program and in doing so found out what was truly there, what was valued, and what we didn't know about. Second, we established effective communication patterns and behavior. We met regularly; we developed reasonable group norms and skills; we learned of one another's strengths and weaknesses; we learned how to listen and to help one another; and we established trust. Given the clear picture of our program and the effective communication norms, we found it much easier to move into problem identification and problem solving modes of behavior.

Getting and Using Grants. During a recent study of the College of Education faculty's needs, we found that time and the use of time were of prime concern to all faculty members. We also knew that if we mixed the demands, on a young faculty, of promotion and tenure with their desire for program development, individual publishing for survival probably would win out over a total faculty effort to change a low status undergraduate program.

With these realities in mind, members of the secondary education faculty seized opportunities to be involved collaboratively in two grants. We hoped our involvement would lead to two things--opportunity to buy resources so that we might have time to engage in program planning, and a chance to do some research and writing.

During 1976-77, members of the secondary faculty wrote portions of a three-year Dean's Grant [for training regular teachers to teach handicapped students]. The grant was funded; and in summer 1977, secondary education faculty members began to be directly influenced by the impetus and thrust of the Dean's Grant. In meeting the goals that had been set, the secondary education faculty established a study group which has:

--read and discussed selected articles about mainstreaming exceptional students
--visited Tacoma and Portland schools
--shadowed a ninth grade educable mentally retarded student for a day
--met with members of the Eugene Special Services staff
--surveyed the secondary faculty's knowledge of and attitudes toward mainstreaming
--prepared a series of short papers related to getting ready for mainstreaming
--made a regional and a national presentation on mainstreaming in secondary education.

Also during 1976-77, the local school district indicated a desire to change a portion of its curriculum. Given our mutual interests and an additional desire to explore job-embedded inservice for both school and university personnel, we collaboratively obtained a Teacher Corps Grant. This grant has given us a working link to the schools, so we might use our experiences there as a basis for decisions about changes in our program. Thus far, all paid University Teacher Corps staff members (and they are on the secondary education faculty) have spent time in contact with school personnel. The contacts range from one-time committee meetings to daily demonstration teaching. As alternatives for program change are discussed, these contacts in the schools are influencing the perspectives of our staff; we are asking for advice from teachers, administrators, interns, and the other Teacher Corps staff members.

The two grants were embraced because they appeared to give us resources with which to buy time for looking at our own program. Reality, though, has proved that such time is still difficult to capture.

Reaching Out for Assistance and Legitimacy. In this, the last of our readiness activities, we needed to (a) gain support, (b) look beyond ourselves, and (c) look to other institutions and the professionals in the field. In 1975 we entered into a new governance arrangement and formed a Consortium for the Improvement of Professional Education--University of Oregon. The purpose of the Consortium is to oversee the development, implementation, and evaluation of any new teacher certification program or any existing program that undergoes major modification. The bylaws have several unique features:

1. The Consortium rather than a university committee sends new and revised programs to our state accrediting agents.

2. The Consortium Council has 12 to 15 members, but actually has only four voting units: (a) the local administrators/school boards, represented by three assistant superintendents; (b) the local

teacher bargaining unit within those three districts, represented by the three Association Presidents; (c) the university faculty, represented by the Dean and faculty members from program areas within the Division of Teacher Education; and (d) the students from the university training programs.

3. For any action to be taken, *all* four votes must be affirmative.

For three years, we have been learning how to use and work within this new governance arrangement. Thus far we have managed to develop three new programs through the Consortium mechanisms, and we are now using the Consortium as we revise our secondary education program. Through this governance arrangement, we are receiving some of the assistance we need, and we believe proposed changes will have a new base of legitimacy.

SOME PROBLEMS TO BE FACED

However, all is not a bed of roses--there are problems.

The first has to do with buying and maintaining the energy of a critical mass. In truth, not more than seven people within the Division of Teacher Education have an assignment in secondary education--and the assignment is only partial. For us to make the changes we have dreamed about and have readied ourselves for, we must maintain the attention of at least five of these seven staff members. They are a critical mass.

At issue is maintaining the optimism, fight, and flurry of our spawning period. At issue is morale when we are a part of a large institution behaving in a reactive, protective manner during times of shrinking enrollment and resources.

At issue is keeping the critical mass from being pulled away and assigned to other college tasks. The critical mass is critical because they are good. Consequently, they are called to other arenas: preparing for NCATE visits, setting up an inservice center, dealing with mainstreaming, directing the graduate program, coordinating the reading program.

A second problem has to do with staying alive over time. I personally feel resistance from others outside our secondary education unit but within the Division of Teacher Education. To survive, a faculty member must follow some unwritten norms. One is to do your own thing and let others do theirs. Another is to play it loose and watch for cues from those who make up the informal power structure. Our building a cohesive program unit of energetic faculty members interested in change--and fighting for unit resources and maintaining this effort over three years--begins to suggest to some that I am not paying homage to the informal rules. Thus, *I* have a problem staying alive professionally.

I can report that institutionalization of change takes time. It cannot be done without attention to readiness activities that focus on the organization structure.

If we are sure of anything, it is this: *whether a project is going to leave anything behind after it is gone will be determined by what is done very early in the life of the project.* And what a project does early in its life is likely to be dependent on the readiness activities that have preceded the project or are occurring concurrently with it.

Institutionalization is not something that takes place only at the end of a project.

THE INVOLVEMENT OF UNIVERSITIES IN INSERVICE EDUCATION: AN ORGANIZATIONAL ANALYSIS

David D. Marsh and Lou M. Carey

A major issue for schools of education at the present time is the role they will play in field-based inservice education for public school staffs. The issue is complex and relates to a variety of trends external to the university, such as approaches to planned change within public schools, the role of teacher organizations in inservice education, and the supporting legislation and financing for school-based inservice education. Within the university, an additional set of issues needs to be addressed if schools of education and other parts of the university are to have a meaningful role in inservice education.

This paper will focus on several trends within a university that affect its involvement in inservice teacher education (ISTE). The paper was developed in several stages over the past year.[1] First, 28 deans, professors, Teacher Corps project directors, researchers, and university-based soft-money staff members were interviewed about the factors that enhance or inhibit a university's involvement in inservice education. From these interviews, an outline of organizational constraints was developed. The outline was then the focus of discussion in two regional Teacher Corps conferences and three school of education retreats where a cross-section of the faculty were planning their university's involvement in inservice education. Based on these discussions, the outline was translated into a questionnaire which was administered to 20 deans, professors, and Teacher Corps project directors, representing ten universities. These individuals rated each constraint on a five-point Likert scale according to the degree to which that constraint inhibited the development of field-based ISTE at their own university. All 21 constraints had mean scores exceeding "moderately constraining" for all three role groups (deans, professors, Teacher Corps project directors). This paper was then developed from the outline, discussion, and interviews.

PERSPECTIVES ON UNIVERSITY INVOLVEMENT IN ISTE

There are several perspectives on why universities are not more involved than they are in field-based inservice education for school staffs. One view is that the problem is essentially monetary: if school districts had the funds to support greater university involvement, the university would quickly expand its efforts. A second view is that the problem is also one of developing new skills among university faculty members and motivating them to become more active in inservice education. The belief that the issue is essentially one of faculty development is reflected in articles by Mathis (1978), Bergquist (1978), and Centra (1978).

Neither of these views is entirely adequate because each neglects the myriad of university organizational constraints that hinder involvement in inservice education. This perspective on university involvement as a problem of institutional change draws on insights by Corwin (1973) concerning the process of change in teacher education programs and the framework for institutional change developed by Dalin and McLaughlin (1976). We present these constraints with the thought that the nature of the problem has considerable implication for the nature of the solution. Meaningful program building in inservice education is very difficult without an understanding and resolution of these organizational issues.

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[1] The project was supported by Contract OE-300-77-0267 from the Teacher Corps, U.S. Office of Education.

Within a university, the institutional constraints that discourage faculty members from assuming inservice education as part of their regular university role are of four types: constraints associated with the purpose of the university, economic constraints, political constraints, and sociological constraints.

CONSTRAINTS ASSOCIATED WITH THE PURPOSE OF THE UNIVERSITY

Three traditional purposes of a university are research, teaching, and service. Inservice teacher education is seen as a service function, largely because of the term "inservice teacher education" itself. The label seems to generate difficulties in school districts and universities alike. In school districts, "inservice teacher education" has unpleasant connotations for teachers, who consider it a waste of time and an affront to their professional status. In universities, the phrase triggers a perception that the effort is a service function. Since the service function is the bastard function within universities, this perception creates problems for individual faculty members who become involved in ISTE as well as for the professional schools with which they are affiliated.

For an individual faculty member, a serious problem is that inservice activities often must be in addition to regular teaching, research, and committee responsibilities because little time or energy is allocated to service functions. For a school of education, a strong service orientation means a loss of status, both within that university and among schools of education across the country. Involvement in inservice education also generates a number of other difficulties; however, it is important to be aware that some of these result directly from the initial perception that inservice education is a service function of the university.

Viewing inservice education as a service function also weakens the quality of the program itself. Service efforts often are based on weak conceptual frameworks, inadequate use of research findings, and poor program implementation strategies. In addition, service efforts receive marginal time allocation and can easily be slighted among competing demands for faculty time. Consequently, it is easy for those providing inservice education to settle for one-time workshops or a traditional education course offered in an off-campus setting.

Inservice education need not and should not be viewed as a service function; it is probably better for universities not to be involved in inservice education at all than to base their involvement on a rationale of service. Rather, inservice education can enhance the teaching and research functions of universities while being very helpful to teachers.

If preservice teacher education is a teaching function, then certainly inservice education is. Inservice education means teaching a new cadre of students in new settings. Instead of offering instruction within regular courses, inservice education is more a matter of assisting the learning and professional development of school personnel by a variety of means.

This comprehensive effort to aid the public school staff implies a new faculty-student relationship, a new instructional setting, and a new learning design, among other adjustments. Yet these aspects of the teaching process will not remain unique to inservice programs; more and more, preservice teacher education programs and educational administrators also are applying such ideas.

Inservice education can be a part of the research function of the school of education as well. To date, research has been praised more in name than in fact in schools of education; little research is actually being conducted. Joyce et al. (1977) pointed out that the average professor prepares a professional article only once every three years, and that only a small percentage had ever conducted studies in schools. Yet research and publication now receive great emphasis in many schools of education and represent both a major opportunity for faculty contributions to inservice education and an increasing pressure on faculty time and energy.

Inservice education efforts could provide rich possibilities for both applied and basic research in education. Rather than competing for faculty time and commitment, inservice education and research activities can be seen as mutually enhancing. Several trends within the field of applied research promote this likelihood. Interdisciplinary, field-based research is increasing both in large, federally funded program evaluations and in small studies, as is action research using a variety of strategies for changing schools--especially where a program treatment is developed and studied. This emphasis on research utilizing carefully developed treatments implemented in regular school settings is in sharp contrast to previous research which examined only "natural variation" in program treatments. Ethnographic studies and other qualitative research are also becoming more respectable complements to quantitative research. In short, inservice education offers numerous opportunities for applied research linked to program efforts and can be examined using these emerging applied research techniques.

In summary, the fact that inservice is categorized as a service function of the university creates status and legitimacy problems for the individual faculty member and for the professional school, both within universities and among schools of education across the country. A service orientation also has diminished the quality of inservice efforts. This rationale has permitted weak program design, inadequate research utilization, and marginal time and resource allocation. However, the service orientation is neither necessary nor desirable; inservice education can enhance the teaching and research functions of universities while being very helpful to teachers.

ECONOMIC CONSTRAINTS

Other organizational constraints on involvement in inservice education are economic in nature, and are readily seen when preservice teacher education is contrasted with inservice education. Preservice teacher education was--and in many cases still is--the economic backbone of a school of education. Large class sizes in the preservice teacher education program generate sufficient full-time equivalents (FTEs) to allow the school of education to offer small seminars for advanced graduate students. In contrast, inservice teacher education barely pays for itself. The funds it provides for faculty members frequently are used as overload pay rather than as support for the regular faculty load. In many cases sizable portions of the inservice funds generated support "soft-money" staff rather than the regular faculty. Moreover, the funds are held in special university budgets which, while providing some discretion in expenditures, also make it harder for inservice education to serve as a more general economic support for the school of education.

Preservice enrollments have also been relatively easy to obtain. While preservice enrollments declined in recent years, they have stabilized once again and are still sufficient to support other programs of the schools of education. In contrast, inservice education programs require continuous development and planning time as well as personal energy to "market" the programs. They also represent considerable financial uncertainty for the school of education and for the individual faculty member. The financial problem of university involvement is as much a matter of funding instability as it is of funding size.

In addition, preservice teacher educators have no private, noninstitutional arrangement to provide instruction to student teachers; they have no vested interest in keeping the programs external to the school of education. State credentialing gives a programmatic and financial monopoly to universities in the preparation of preservice teachers. In contrast, many university faculty members have private consulting arrangements to provide inservice education to districts. Edelfelt (1977) argued that service to school districts ". . . has become the major source of moonlighting and extra pay for higher education faculty."

We should hesitate to call such faculty consulting "moonlighting" in its usual sense, however. Moonlighting usually connotes holding two independent jobs where employers are uninformed or, at best, tolerant of the employee's other job. In contrast, faculty consulting (in this case, as inservice education to school districts) has longstanding acceptance in the university, is institutionalized as an arrangement within the university, and creates benefits for the university as well as for the individual faculty member.

Historically, prospective faculty members have been informed at the time of their job interview that they may supplement their salary by consulting, usually within specified limits. One argument university administrators have used in holding down faculty salaries is that faculty members can augment their salaries with consulting work. Consulting arrangements are institutionalized at the university in several ways--most notably in the scheduling of classes so that faculty members are free one day per week (usually Friday) for writing or consulting. Finally, most school of education administrators and faculty members quickly point out that faculty consulting with school districts has several direct benefits for the university: for example, consultants often improve relationships with school districts, maintain contacts with and provide benefits to alumni of the school of education, and help recruit students into other university programs. They also facilitate field placement opportunities for students and open the way for the employment of graduates from education programs.

Both the university faculties and the school district leaders have good reasons not to give up their private inservice arrangements. Such arrangements provide faculty members with extra money beyond their regular salary, without the bureaucratic strains of processing financial paperwork through the university and the school district. School districts prefer these private arrangements as well; they are able to obtain the specific individuals desired on a more flexible basis, and without the university overhead or bureaucratic procedures a university-based contract might entail.

Some education deans have considered using merit pay or overload pay for effecting a transition from private to institutionalized arrangements for inservice education or for encouraging greater faculty participation in inservice education. However, faculties perceive few economic benefits (except survival) of such involvement, and numerous economic constraints. Even if the school of education devoted its entire merit pay incentive to inservice education, this small percentage of a salary often would be many times smaller than the inservice consulting money now earned by a faculty member. Therefore, this institutional "carrot" has not been sufficiently attractive to date.

The institutional "stick" has been no more effective than the institutional "carrot" in drawing more faculty members into institutionally based inservice education. Unlike England, where declining student enrollments have led to major faculty reductions, and even to the closing of many teacher education institutions, the United States has not seen massive faculty dismissals. Furthermore, few faculties have had to turn to inservice to obtain "load coverage," although this situation may soon be upon us.

For faculty members who want inservice education as part of their load, the concept of "faculty load" is itself a perplexing problem. Faculty load is defined in terms of course credit hours. This conception of load, based on courses taught, implies that a nine-credit teaching load (with three additional credits for research/committees/advisements) means a faculty member spends 75 percent of the time teaching. Actual time distribution for a faculty member is quite different, however, and can vary dramatically among faculty. Consequently, there frequently is a serious time problem when a faculty member is released from a three-credit course (assumed to be 25 percent of load, for example) to spend a day and a quarter a week--or even a day a week--in the field.

A final set of economic constraints concern the various budgets in a school of education and the way in which project funds are handled. Hard-money budgets in the school of education are generally based on tuition credits. These hard-money budgets--and the corresponding need to teach tuition-generating classes--are important in defining the legitimacy of a faculty member and providing for long-term faculty job security. In many universities, it is difficult to give inservice education courses a legitimate relationship to these hard-money budgets. On the other hand, as previously noted, soft-money funds have proved undependable, and generate overhead dollars whch often are "lost" to the central university administration. Consequently, the school of education has a hard time recapturing overhead expenses for inservice projects, generating program development funds which would encourage future staff development arrangements, and providing hard-money legitimacy for faculty members involved in such programs.

Inservice education efforts that are funded as projects rather than directly from tuition dollars experience additional problems. Schools of education typically have cumbersome procedures for handling project funding of inservice education. As the directors of many Teacher Corps projects can verify, universities also encounter difficulties handling enrollments and admissions for groups of students.

POLITICAL CONSTRAINTS

Several political constraints inhibit university involvement in inservice education. Both Denemark (1977) and Edelfelt (1977) have argued for greater control of teacher education by the school of education rather than by the entire university. In response to the claim that teacher education is an all-university responsibility, Denemark replied, "This view frequently limits the responsiveness of a university to school system needs and prevents the building of significant constituency in the field" (p. 6). Schools of education feel a need for greater control over program decisions in inservice education and over the logistical arrangements which would allow for such things as off-campus program offerings.

Schools of education are also embroiled in campus-wide disputes over jurisdiction of inservice programs. For example, colleges of continuing education and other university divisions or programs are increasingly offering inservice programs for teachers. While it is easy to talk in the abstract about cooperation among the various units within the university, such cooperation is often difficult to obtain, especially in times of tight budgets. Budgets themselves are also part of the financial dispute; for example, one issue is a more equitable distribution of overhead costs between the school of education and the university in general.

Within the school of education several governance issues must be addressed. Two observations about the faculty committee structure help clarify some of the governance issues. The first is that there are a large number of faculty committees in schools of education, and they have overlapping jurisdictions. This governance arrangement is time-consuming and cumbersome, even at best. For inservice education, it poses several problems. Often, inservice programs need rapid approval from one or several committees in order to meet the funding requirements of outside agencies. Moreover, committees are used to approving relatively stable programs, while inservice education programs may require frequent redesign to meet the needs of a particular school setting. Consequently, standing committees are frequently frustrated by the demands of inservice programs.

A second observation is that the committees function essentially to approve programs presented by a single department or to set policies for programs across departments. Conversely, committees are not vehicles for collaborative program development. In fact, cross-departmental collaboration on program design or implementation is rare. For example, what appears to be cross-departmental collaboration in carrying out preservice teacher education is usually only parallel activity--little program integration exists. For inservice education, cross-departmental cooperation is necessary in program delivery and in administration. Consequently, inservice education creates a two-pronged dilemma for schools of education: it frequently conflicts with numerous institutional norms and practices, and it also presents difficulties by requiring cross-departmental program delivery and administration.

Inservice education also raises interesting jurisdictional issues between the faculties and deans of schools of education. Many inservice programs require extensive involvement and rapid decisions by the dean, who typically must approve program funding, nontraditional program features, and staffing under a host of sometimes quickly established special arrangements. Each new inservice program seems to bring forth the need for additional special arrangements, often reaching across departments, so that department chairmen and/or other faculty members may be left feeling uninformed, uninvolved, and uncomfortable with both the inservice program and the dean's power.

SOCIOLOGICAL CONSTRAINTS

Sociological constraints, as well as economic and political ones, inhibit the implementation of inservice education. For example, faculty members sometimes see their role as one of specialization within a narrow discipline, whereas inservice education often requires them to act more as generalists. In inservice education, the substantive expertise of faculty is expected to reach across broader issues of education, and their knowledge needs to be applied with a greater emphasis on problem solving. Moreover, they must possess or develop a myriad of skills and insights in the process of helping teachers. A closely related problem is that faculty members often build their reputations on the ability to criticize rather than advocate. Inservice education ultimately requires them to play a program-building rather than criticizing role. In general, faculty socialization is often dysfunctional to creative involvement in inservice education.

Faculty members also have grown accustomed to a certain power over students. This power relationship can be seen by comparing the relationship between a faculty member and a doctoral student with that between a supervisor and a worker on an assembly line. The assembly line worker need be concerned only with on-the-job performance, which is essentially a problem of appropriate behavior or activity. As long as the assembly line worker produces the right output, personal thoughts and ideas can remain unexposed. In contrast, the intimate exchange of ideas between a doctoral student and a professor means the professor can have a much more powerful influence over the student. This influence is encouraged and respected and, in fact, remains at the heart of a university; however, the power relationship can have detrimental results.

Power relationships in inservice education are dramatically different. Preservice teachers and doctoral students come to the university with several common characteristics; they come: (a) as individuals, (b) needing a degree and/or credential and a strong letter of recommendation on completing the program, and (c) without powerful institutional support. Inservice programs, on the other hand, often are for groups of teachers who don't need the additional degree or credential. These teachers frequently have implied support from a school district and/or a teachers organization. The knowledge gap between professor and inservice teacher is much smaller than between professor and preservice teacher. Moreover, inservice programs are often held on the teachers' "turf." Consequently, faculty and inservice students often must negotiate their programs, and many faculty members are not familiar with nor skilled in such negotiations.

Notions about academic freedom compound this problem. Academic freedom originally was a protection so that faculty members could speak or write their beliefs on controversial issues without threat of losing their jobs. Recently the concept has taken on several additional meanings. First, academic freedom is institutional freedom: the freedom to ignore (to some extent) institutional pressures of any type, particularly those originating from the dean. Second, it is freedom to teach as one chooses, even if this teaching (content or method) is not appropriate to the students--in this case inservice teachers. When confronted with a power relationship dilemma, some faculty members bewail the loss of academic freedom. A new balance of academic freedom, institutional freedom, and relevant program operation is needed in professional schools. This balance is a complex one where many legitimate needs and values must be considered.

Another major sociological constraint relates to the faculty's own "turf" within the school of education. To outsiders, faculty members appear to obtain permanent rights to a secure spot in the school of education when they achieve tenure. Yet turf is a much more fragile commodity, and often consists of ownership of prized courses, doctoral students, or positions on select faculty committees. Many faculty members hesitate to give up advanced doctoral courses they have traditionally taught, or prized time slots in the academic schedule, in order to involve themselves in inservice education. Furthermore, extensive involvement in inservice education can lead to informal ostracism by colleagues. Turf is a month-to-month issue rather than one associated exclusively with obtaining tenure.

The structuring of time in the school of education also complicates participation in inservice education. Each day of the week faculty members are busy with classes, committees, and/or counseling of students. Consequently the large blocks of field time required for effective participation in inservice education create difficult scheduling problems.

A related problem is the pace of activity. Abraham Kaplan (1978) recently commented that he accepted a short-term appointment at a center for advanced study because universities have become places of frantic activity rather than studied reflection; he felt he needed to flee his own university to obtain time for valued activities. Within schools of education, the inadequacy of course loads as a reflection of faculty responsibility compounds the problems of time and the pace of activities. Faculty members are responsible for many activities not included in their course load.

A good case can be made that research in education is also greatly influenced by faculty time--research reflects what a faculty professor and one or two graduate students can accomplish in and around other obligations. Consequently, much research is characterized by artificial experiments conducted with easily available students or student teachers. Similarly, inservice education efforts are also limited and biased by faculty scheduling problems.

Moreover, a "hang-on-tight" mindset has dominated universities in recent years. Declining enrollments have led to fewer faculty positions, or at least few new faculty members. These pressures are felt differentially by various role groups such as deans, tenured faculty, nontenured assistant professors, and soft-money staff. Sociological and economic pressures that may prompt a dean to innovate in such areas as inservice education may be precisely the pressures that cause tenured faculty to seek greater security.

Field activities pit the comfort of the known (campus-based work) against fear, or at least uncertainty, of the unknown (school-based work). Many faculty members sense that they lack skills or motivation to carry off inservice programs; consequently, they hesitate to become involved. Yet, in discussions of the university's role in inservice education, attention typically is given only to the "carrots" or rewards which might attract faculty to greater involvement in inservice education. A more useful paradigm for examining faculty concerns would include faculty perceptions about

Figure 1
A FRAMEWORK FOR VIEWING FACULTY ATTITUDES ABOUT BECOMING INVOLVED IN INSERVICE EDUCATION

Current Role	New Role
perceived positives	perceived positives
perceived negatives	perceived negatives

the positive and negative aspects of their current situation, as well as the perceived positive and negative aspects of expanded inservice education responsibilities (see Figure 1). Emphasis on the rewards associated with new programs such as inservice education addresses only one of the four categories suggested by this paradigm. Increased financial reward may have little attraction for a faculty member who is reluctant to become involved in inservice education because of concerns about any number of sociological or governance issues. Hall and Loucks (1978) presented a complementary framework for analyzing the personal concerns of faculty members in the context of adopting innovations.

It is also useful to consider the many roles faculty could play in inservice education. While it is true that some faculty members may choose to be involved in inservice while others choose not to be, it is also true that some may desire to take responsibility for developing and coordinating such a program while others might be willing to teach in the program or assist in its research component. The careful matching of individual faculty, university, and field needs is a complex process which will require careful attention if a university is to be involved meaningfully in inservice education.

Finally, many universities have used soft-money staff members associated with local or federally funded projects to help staff their inservice programs. Soft-money staff members play a vital role in inservice education. They often possess important clinical skills needed to make university involvement in inservice education successful. They may relate well to public school teachers and have significant credibility with them. Often, they are relatively free of many sociological constraints hindering regular faculty members. In addition, they are often highly motivated to work in inservice education; they may value field involvement over other professional activities.

Soft-money staff members present several dilemmas for schools of education, however. The dilemmas are keenly felt by the individuals themselves, who sometimes have a bittersweet relationship with the institution. The first of these dilemmas concerns job status. Typically, these individuals are on year-long, temporary contracts whose renewal is contingent upon new project funding the staff members themselves secure. Thus they rarely have long-term job security or more than second-rate job status with the school of education. A long-term role with institutional legitimacy is needed for soft-money staff, to reflect and respect their academic training and field responsibilities.

The development and institutionalization of inservice programs take on added complexity when soft-money staff members are involved. We have frequently observed a pattern of inservice involvement for universities in which the soft-money staff members develop and direct inservice projects, while regular faculty members teach courses within these projects. The rub comes when soft-money staff members feel that they are being used--that they do the hard work and deal with critical issues in education, while regular faculty members get credit for teaching and may even be paid on an overload basis. In turn, the regular faculty sometimes resents the high pay, frequent travel, "sloppy work," or ungrateful attitude of the soft-money staff.

Marsh (1977) and Carey and Marsh (1978) discussed several reasons soft-money staffs have not promoted institutionalization of inservice innovations with complete vigor or success. They have little incentive to institutionalize innovations they have nurtured and developed; once institutionalized, these innovations usually become the domain of a regular faculty member because soft-money staff members lack academic credentials or control over degree programs. They also lack the status or clout to win informal acceptance and institutional approval for their innovations, as well as the knowledge to translate innovations into the administrative building blocks of the institution (credits, courses, programs, degrees).

In summary, numerous sociological constraints hinder institutional involvement in inservice education:

1. Faculty members in IHEs often possess a specialized knowledge, whereas inservice education may require broader expertise and a problem-solving orientation.

2. A faculty propensity toward critical analysis sometimes hinders inservice education, where support and program building are needed.

3. Many faculty members have grown accustomed to a dominant power relationship over students, while teachers have sizable power in negotiations about what to learn and how learning will proceed.

4. Faculty members have a continuing problem of protecting their own "turf" within the school of education, as well as serious time constraints and myriad other responsibilities which keep them at an intense level of activity.

5. Finally, inservice education is constrained by the complex problems of faculty motivation, and is also complicated by soft-money staff members who enhance inservice programs yet present several dilemmas regarding their job security, cooperative program development, and institutionalization of innovations in inservice education.

IMPLICATIONS

This analysis has a number of implications for the process by which universities can become involved in inservice education. It is clear that the process must include the removal of institutional roadblocks as well as the development of program directions, faculty skills, and faculty motivation. The process will need to be a long-term developmental effort reflecting the stages of institutionalizing an innovation, and specific planning steps, described in a planning guide by Carey and Marsh (1978). The planning process will need to be coordinated by a task force representative of a cross-section of the faculty. We doubt that only one individual could represent the political consensus and perspective needed for developing inservice programs at the university.

The task force should consider developmental issues within the school of education (such as program directions, staff allocation and rewards, and funding arrangements) as well as more generic issues (such as faculty, load, promotion criteria, and the long-term status of soft-money staff members). Kersh (1978) described how the development process must also relate to policy at all the university and statewide levels. Creative relationships at these levels, as well as with school districts and teacher organizations, need to be established.

It is likely that an ongoing governance/development mechanism will be required if the school of education is to become and remain a meaningful part of inservice education for school staffs. Like the members of the initial task force, the persons responsible for this mechanism must blend the skills and perspectives of inservice practitioners, researchers, and "gatekeepers" from the university as well as school district and teacher organization representatives. The mechanism would need to revise program directions and program delivery procedures; assign, train, and reward staff members; generate broad-based ownership for inservice programs within the university and at the state level; retain a research/teaching orientation, rather than a service orientation, for inservice programs; and seek additional funding for inservice programs. A mechanism which addressed these issues would be responsive to the major tenet of this paper: that a number of important organizational issues must be resolved if universities are to be involved meaningfully in field-based inservice education for school staffs.

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